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ABSTRACT

This publication analyzes teacher education policy and practice with respect to teacher recruitment, induction, and continuing professional development with the intention of stimulating dialogue, debate, and collaboration among state agencies, state boards of education, teacher training institutions, legislators, and those involved in teacher certification. Following a foreword and preface, the document is organized into six sections: (1) Recruitment of a More Highly Qualified and Diverse Population into Teaching; (2) Selection and Early Screening into Programs of Teacher Preparation; (3) More Coherent and Potent Programs of Initial Teacher Preparation; (4) Selection into Teaching; (5) Toward Entry-Year Designs as a Necessary Extension of Preservice; and (6) Continuing Professional Development. From 3 to 12 subtopics are discussed in each section, and each section concludes with a comprehensive set of interrelated policy and practice recommendations for studied deliberation among leaders, particularly those in state education agencies who can effect some of the proposed changes. A bibliography containing 77 references is included. (LL)

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An analysis of issues from recruitment
to continuing professional development
with recommendations

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A Report Prepared for

NCREL

The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory

By Nancy L Zimpher, The Ohio State University
Kenneth R. Howey, The Ohio State University

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FOREWORD

Attracting and keeping a high quality teaching force is paramount to any school reform effort. This paper, a sequel to Zimpher and Howey's earlier work for NCREL in the area of professional development for teachers, lays out bold recommendations in the spirit of fostering a more coherent reform effort than we have seen in the past.

The authors propose that what is needed to improve the education of teachers is an interrelated set of policies, with state agencies partnering with higher education to advocate making needed changes.

NCREL believes that policies concerning teacher recruitment, induction, and continuing professional development interlock, and that no one group alone can bring about needed change. This paper, then, is intended to stimulate dialogue and debate among a comprehensive group of stakeholders. We hope states might use this piece to bring together groups that might not otherwise be motivated to collaborate — state education agencies, state boards of education, teacher training institutions, legislators, those involved in teacher certification, and anyone concerned with the issue of equity in education.

Much is happening throughout NCREL's seven states, and this paper offers an opportunity to focus on important change areas. However, it was beyond the scope of this document to cover the particulars of state-by-state activity regarding teacher preparation and professional development; NCREL plans future monographs in the area of professional development, in particular promising professional development models in the region.

Approaches to change will vary from state to state, but if this paper mobilizes a group of stakeholders to work together — and a state education agency might be able to bring such a group to the table — then we will be on our way toward achieving more enlightened teacher education policy and practice.

*Jeri Nowakowski, Executive Director
North Central Regional Educational Laboratory*

Preface

This report is a sequel to an earlier report concerned with professional development that the authors, along with William Matthes, prepared for NCREL in 1987. That report, *Issues and Problems in Professional Development*, addressed a spectrum of activities beginning with the recruitment of teachers into programs of preservice preparation, their initial preparation, their selection into a teaching position, the particular education or lack thereof that accompanied their first year on the job, and finally the quality and character of their continuing professional development.

We addressed the above continuum of activities because the problems confronting those concerned with improving the quality of teachers are often interrelated. For example, differences in the scope and duration of initial preparation suggest the extent to which different entry-year programs might be needed. These key transitional programs, in turn, serve as a departure point for designing programs of staff development that take into account basic differences in needs and interests at different stages of a teacher's career.

Likewise, this interrelated view addresses the problem of retention. Many outstanding veteran teachers, unable to accommodate some desired change in their assignment or an opportunity for expanded responsibility, leave the profession at the height of their careers. The resolution to this problem can be related to how to better retain beginning teachers during the critical first months and years of teaching. Implementing consulting or "mentor" teacher roles for veteran teachers in which they have some portion of their teaching assignment reallocated to work with novice teachers could lead to better retention of both high quality beginning teachers and experienced teachers.

This sequel to that first report reviews literature from a variety of data sources to briefly update some of the major concerns attached to the professional development of teachers. In this report, however, these analyses culminate in a comprehensive set of recommendations for policy and practice which might be put into effect to resolve these concerns. The focused nature of these recommendations differentiate this report from a number of other recent reports concerned with improving the quality of teaching and teacher education or professional development. Suggestions for improving the education of teachers have come from all quarters. There is no shortage of "reformists," at least in terms of

rhetoric. While these reform reports have engendered needed dialogue and debate, they have not typically resulted in cross-cutting changes. Nonetheless, those in leadership positions in state agencies are in a pivotal position at a critically important time. They can affect policy and practice. Changes needed to improve teacher education cannot occur at the institutional level without significant changes in policy at the state level (Howey, 1990). For example, extending preservice preparation more fully into the first year of teaching calls for major intervention at the state level.

It appears, however, that in many states the failure to find a "quick fix" within existing structures has suggested to policymakers that the means to improve the quality of teaching lies outside those traditionally charged with educating teachers through such activities as alternative credentialling. Although high quality competition in terms of the preparation of teachers can only be viewed as an asset and while the pool of capable applicants who desire to teach very much needs to be enlarged, we believe diverting major resources in this direction misses the mark in terms of how the quality of teaching will be improved over the long run. To achieve more fundamental and lasting changes across a state, coordinated changes across all aspects of teacher education are needed.

This document presents a set of interrelated policies and practices for studied deliberation among leaders, particularly those in state education agencies who can effect some of these proposed changes. The recommendations are offered in the spirit of achieving a more coherent reform effort than has been seen in the past. The document identifies directions for policy and practice in response to the following interrelated set of questions:

- How can we recruit more academically able and culturally diverse persons into programs of teacher preparation and eventually into teaching?
- How can those preparing teachers integrate early into programs of preservice teacher education a series of diagnostic screening activities that have better predictive validity in terms of who will be effective in a variety of teaching roles and responsibilities?
- How can more coherent and efficacious programs of preservice teacher preparation be fostered?
- How can teachers graduating from preservice programs be selected for specific teaching positions with more confidence in the match between their abilities and the demands of that position? Similarly, how can beginning teachers be given a scope of responsibility more commensurate with their abilities as novice teachers than many are provided at present?

- How can entry-year or induction programs be implemented which provide needed transitional support, further education, and rigorous evaluation of first year teachers?
- How can coherent and efficacious programs of continuing professional development be enabled by the development of program standards and a corollary program approval process be administered?

However inclusive any efforts to redress current problems might be, there are, nonetheless, understandable and obvious limitations in terms of what can be achieved. State education agencies, for example, are limited in terms of personnel and monetary resources which they have available to promote change. The policy recommendations that are shared herein have been filtered through a series of screens since a lengthy "laundry" list of recommendations, largely not implementable, is hardly helpful. The filtering questions that we asked included:

- Is this a policy that state-level policymakers including Boards of Education, legislatures, and the state education agency could initiate?
- How does this policy relate to other policies and actions commonly in place that can reinforce and amplify its impact; how might it fit into an omnibus strategy for educational "reform" or improvement?
- How centrally does it address priority issues or problems?
- How feasible is the implementation of the policy? Are there likely to be sufficient resources and a viable timeline attached to the policy; will the SEA or other state policymakers including legislators actually be able to support implementation?

We turn now to the first major concern in the continuum—the recruitment of prospective teachers.

PART ONE

Recruitment of a More Highly Qualified and Diverse Population into Teaching

Prospective Teachers

Predictions over the past decade projected a major shortage of teachers by 1990 (Sandefur, 1984). Now the decade of the nineties has arrived and concerns about teacher shortages have somewhat abated generally. However, concerns over the diversity and quality of the teaching force have not (Feistritzer, 1987). There remains a major exodus from teaching during the first three years of service (Haberman, 1987). In order to chart a policy path for seeking more effective magnets for attracting quality high school and junior college graduates into teaching, it is helpful to examine those now attracted to teacher education as well as some of the incentives and disincentives of teaching that directly affect recruitment initiatives.

Profiles of prospective teachers depict a narrowly defined population of students, strikingly similar in demography, experience, and career aspirations. The typical teacher is a white, 40-year old female who teaches in a suburban elementary school (Feistritzer, 1983). Four consecutive years of data describing preservice teacher candidates on campuses across the country provide a profile of the future cohort not all that dissimilar to this profile of the teacher in service (Research About Teacher Education [RATE], 1989). This preservice student is also typically a white female from a small town or suburban community. She matriculates in a college less than 100 miles away from home and intends to return to teach in a similar setting. Specifically, 76 percent of these preservice students are female (almost 90 percent of those in elementary programs are female) and 91 percent are white; less than 1 percent could instruct in any language other than English.

The Problem of Diversity

This profile contrasts sharply with projected overall public school enrollments of one-third minority youth and children of poverty by the end of this decade (Feistritzer, 1986 and Haberman, 1987). Most large cities now exceed this percentage. Currently 23 of the 25 largest cities in the United States report that the majority of their students are from minority populations (Graham, 1987). Further, urban universities certify less than 10 percent of the nation's beginning teachers (Haberman, 1987).

It is also helpful to contrast this pool of prospective teachers with the population of undergraduates currently enrolled in higher education generally. For example, only 53.5 percent of the overall college population is female (Chronicle of Higher Education, September 6, 1989). Thus, teacher education continues to attract a considerably larger proportion of women than other majors. In terms of minorities, the general college and university enrollment includes 11.7 percent blacks and 6.4 percent Hispanics; college of education enrollment conversely is 5 percent blacks and 3 percent Hispanics (RATE, 1987). One likely explanation for the declining enrollment of minorities in teacher education vis-a-vis the general student population is the fierce competition for minorities in academic recruitment where other programs promise more monetary reward and prestige upon graduation (Zimpher, 1989). Baratz (1986) reports that top SAT-scoring blacks traditionally choose four majors: engineering (36 percent), health and medicine (15 percent), computer science (12 percent) and social sciences (11 percent). Less than 1 percent of the minority students in her survey indicated an interest in education. The problem of recruiting minorities into teaching is also exacerbated by the fact that blacks and Hispanics drop out of education at all levels much faster than do Anglos, leaving those in education with fewer minorities to draw from at the time when selection typically occurs; that is, in the early years of college (Zimpher and Yessayan, 1987).

Even if the number of minorities entering teaching were substantially increased, major problems remain. For example, the large urban areas of this country will still have a critical shortage of qualified teachers. The RATE studies reveal that most graduates prefer to take their first teaching positions near where they grew up, teaching children and youth of the same economic background and of average ability (rather than gifted or disadvantaged youth), and in traditionally organized schools (RATE, 1989). For the less than 10 percent of graduates who do venture to cities or major urban areas, over half of these leave teaching in three years or less (Haberman, 1987). Earlier studies also document that those who leave teaching after relatively short terms in the classroom are from higher aptitude quartiles than those who remain in the classroom (Schlechty and Vance, 1981). Also, homogeneity in terms of ethnicity and class appear reinforced by limited travel experience, the inability to communicate fluently with non-English speaking people, and a relatively insular orientation to the problems of a global society (RATE, 1988). If the shortage of qualified teacher candidates who reflect the increasingly culturally diverse and stratified society has reached major proportions, the shortage of preservice teachers of any culture, certainly including the dominant

culture, who bring a desired multicultural and global perspective to the task is an even greater problem. In this regard major changes in the character of teacher preparation for all teachers are needed.

Incentives and Disincentives

The proportions of the recruitment problem are further aggravated when one considers incentives and disincentives of teaching as a career. Looking first at what is on the minds of today's college freshmen gives us some warning signals in terms of the dimensions of the problem. Recent studies of the career interests of college freshman who showed interest in pursuing teaching varied between 4.7 and 6.2 percent of those surveyed (Carnegie Forum, 1986). Astin (1989) has conducted studies of college freshmen for the past 20 years. He cites a general decline in the career choices of college freshmen, whatever their ethnicity, in the fields of education, social sciences, the arts and humanities, nursing, and social work and an increase in interest in the fields of business, engineering, and computer services. Life goals of college freshmen demonstrate an obvious trend with the highest rated life goal of "being very well-off financially," up from a 40 percent response rate 10 years ago to over 70 percent. Astin observes, "Apparently, today's students are much more inclined than earlier generations to believe that learning is for earning" (1989:41). The above data underscore dimensions of the problem, but there are other major disincentives as well to pursuing a teaching career. Rosenholtz (1989) characterizes these as: low pay, too many administrative duties, too little time for preparation and collegiality, little autonomy and influence over decisions affecting one's teaching, physical facilities, limited resources, and limited appreciation of the role from the community at large.

There are also studies (Hanes and Levine, 1986-87 and Clark, 1987) that document some positive forces for considering teaching as a career, including a genuine interest in working with children and young people and contributing to their ongoing growth and development, identifying with their own positive experiences in schooling, and motivations to perform a social service. Thus, social altruism still speaks to the career considerations of many prospective teachers. The challenge is to support and reward those so inclined to see the contribution they can make during the course of a teaching career.

Teaching High Schools

While major initiatives must be launched to ensure that all teachers are oriented to a multicultural perspective, major efforts also must be expended to recruit more ethnically diverse men and women into teaching. Recruitment activities and selection procedures

cannot be limited to inter-and intra-institutional competition for college-bound minorities which characterize the present situation. Initiatives targeted at attracting minorities to consider teaching as a career must begin as early as middle school, and must include incentives to retain these students throughout their schooling and into a teaching position. Schools everywhere are populated with some outstanding teachers. Typically, these are teachers with years of experience in the classroom, bolstered by countless successes with students in their charge. They are teachers characterized by a high degree of self-confidence and a sense of their efficacy as teachers. They are also teachers who tend to be highly respected by their peers and are already serving in informal leadership roles in their schools. These are the role models who are most likely to recruit their highly talented students into teaching. However, they need to be both better prepared and supported in their efforts to do so. Many of these outstanding teachers are in schools that serve large numbers of the nation's minority youth whose presence in the teaching ranks is so desperately needed. It is in these schools that special efforts must be made to recruit students into teaching who demonstrate academic success and the ability to work effectively with others. These youngsters might be recruited to attend a magnet school—for example, a teaching high school or perhaps a school within a school. They could be assigned to a "mentor" teacher during their secondary schooling, if such a magnet school cannot be formulated. In such settings, these young people would have several options that would allow them to see whether teaching might appeal to them and fit with their abilities and dispositions. In these specially designated teaching schools they would receive special attention and encouragement from powerful role models. They would pursue, along with other potential teacher candidates, some formal coursework concentrated on education and youth. They would serve in a variety of teacher aide capacities. They would engage in cross-age tutoring with elementary-age youngsters and they would work in an instructional capacity with other youth groups. They would belong to a future teachers' club and, importantly, would have a network of peers with similar interests to support them. They could also have opportunities to interact with both faculty and preservice teachers at nearby schools and colleges of teacher education.

This early intervention strategy also could include financial incentives to make pursuing a teaching degree possible. These strategies might include personal and corporate sponsorships, fellowships and scholarships, loan-forgiveness programs, and work-study support. The teaching profession, both teachers and teacher educators, must become more personally accessible to the

underrepresented populations who could become tomorrow's teachers. This personalized recruitment must begin much earlier than at present and we believe state education agencies and state legislatures can help effect policies that would enable this.

Alternative Credentialling

This early recruitment strategy stands in sharp contrast to another recruitment strategy, one targeted on potential teaching candidates who earlier made decisions to pursue another career. Alternative teacher education programs should be rigorously tested as an option to more traditional paths to teaching. But it is a strategy that calls for quality preparation.

No one today would think of putting a person into a job as an engineer, an architect, or an accountant without special training. Yet the practice of hiring people to teach who have no specific preparation for teaching continues to be prevalent. It happens most often when there is a teacher shortage. The excuse then is that classrooms cannot be left unstaffed. Children cannot be deprived of a teacher. The question is whether having an unqualified teacher is better than having no teacher at all. Such a question would never arise when the job is designing a bridge or auditing an account. (Association of Teacher Educators Commission on Alternative Certification, 1989:1)

Assurance needs to be provided in cases where alternative certification programs are created that the need is a significant one, and that preparation, standards, and assessment procedures are in place to guarantee desired teacher performance. Promoting alternative programs should include the full involvement of schools, colleges, departments of education, and state agencies.

Neither can these alternative programs be limited basically to an apprenticeship and divorced from the intellectual underpinnings of a profession: research and theory. This is not to deny that many formal programs of teacher preparation have a way to go in this regard as well, and we address the problems of preservice teacher preparation in some detail later in this report. The major insights that we are gaining into how one learns to teach are rooted in an intellectual and clinical conception of teaching and not just technical and performative behavior. Note the stark contrast in the two references which follow. The first pertains to a summary of findings from teacher "induction" programs characterized by periodic assessments of discrete performative behavior. The second pertains to the growing body of research that reveals how teachers think about teaching and learning, mediated by a complex social, organizational, and cultural context. The quality of teacher reasoning is what separates

the effective, experienced teacher from the less effective, less experienced teacher. This ability to think on one's feet, to guide myriad daily interactions with some defensible, even generalizable, principles is not, in fact cannot, easily be learned by oneself through practice or by observing another in an apprentice role. The development of these abilities calls for a rich, structured discourse between novice and expert teachers embedded in our growing theoretical understandings of teaching and learning, and classrooms and schools. Griffin's (1983) studies of induction identify the basic problems:

- Teaching is increasingly constrained by narrow conceptions of teacher behavior.
- Expectations for teachers, typically derived from recent research into teaching effectiveness, are commonly pitched at the level of technique.
- Policy mandates for certification, proposals for rewarding meritorious behavior, and claims about mastery are currently more often based upon conceptualizations of what might be called "microbehavior" than they are upon the teacher as a total professional. (p. 14)

Koff (1986) illustrates the promise of a much more professional image, one, by the way, that is undergirding proposed assessment for the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards:

This view of teaching assumes that teachers can think and that in fact they do so while they are teaching. The actions these teachers take result from their practical arguments. A practical argument consists of a series of premises. It includes a value/belief premise (e.g., it is good/better to ...), a set of empirical premises (e.g., if I do this, then x will result), and a situational/perceptive premise, (e.g., this is the appropriate time/place to...), and it culminates in action. Teachers can articulate these arguments. Specifically, a competent teacher is one who can articulate the practical arguments on which his/her actions are based. The competent teacher exemplifies quality and excellence in teaching and at the same time exemplifies professionalism in teaching, in the sense of profession as action or activity directed toward service aimed at some valued end, some public good. (p. 4)

Recommendations for Recruitment

The following are recommendations targeted to address the problems and concerns outlined above:

- Intensive early intervention programs should be designed especially to attract minority students into the profession. A linchpin in such a strategy is the identification of outstanding experienced teachers to assist in the recruitment role.

Outstanding teachers should be honored annually for their positive image of teaching which they communicate to potential teaching candidates. The attitudes of highly successful teachers are communicated not only in their words and actions, but also in their long-term commitment to the profession as demonstrated to their students, their peers, and the larger community. Essays on the nature of the profession of teaching could be part of this process. These teachers would be supported to speak regularly to middle/junior and senior high school and junior college students and other populations of potential teachers as "goodwill ambassadors" for the teaching profession.

The centerpiece of a comprehensive plan for recruiting prospective teachers into teacher education should be a realistic but positive portrayal of teaching by carefully selected teacher role models. Most fundamentally, secondary teachers should be assigned as mentors to one or more potential teacher candidates. This role needs to be publicly acknowledged. SEAs can help by establishing statewide forums for these mentor teachers to exchange information and effective processes.

- Seed money should be provided for the development of teaching high schools. It is necessary to intervene early in the recruitment of prospective teachers. Therefore, at the middle or junior high school level, students who would consider teaching as a possible career should be invited to attend "magnet" high schools or schools within schools wherein they would be assigned to an experienced teacher mentor, be able to pursue elective courses focused on teaching and broader educational issues, have numerous opportunities to assist teachers at that school, and have multiple opportunities to teach and work with younger children outside of that school context. Special emphasis in this program should be placed on attracting minority students. The SEA can help by disseminating materials describing the various models concerned with the recruitment of young persons into teaching. Care should be taken, however, not to unduly influence these youngsters into premature decisions.
- A program of fellowships and scholarships should be developed with the support of the private sector to offset costs associated with college enrollment for the top percentage of students graduating from teaching high schools, or otherwise identified as high potential teacher candidates. A host of such alternative funding sources has been identified across the states (AACTE, 1987), including loan-forgiveness programs, special incentive guarantees with commitments to teach in specially identified school districts, work-study programs, scholastic awards that include no "teaching pay-back," incremental student aid, living stipends, and local business and industry incentive programs encouraging young people to commit to teaching as a career.
- Alternative programming and credentialing as a vehicle for encouraging those who otherwise might not consider teaching as a career is recommended on an interim basis, with particular assurances surrounding the nature of these programs.

Leadership is needed in specifying the nature of such programs, including the exigency conditions under which these programs may be offered, and the standards necessary for a teacher candidate to gain licensure under alternative routes. Such standards should include: a) processes for selecting certification candidates to participate in alternative certification programs; b) on-the-job requirements associated with teaching assignments while in the program and the concomitant pedagogical training; c) the nature of the training experiences relative to current knowledge bases about teaching and learning, and the qualifications of those offering these learning opportunities.

PART TWO

Selection and Early Screening into Programs of Teacher Preparation

Conventional Assessment

Since conventional assessments of academic aptitude and achievement prior to entry into a program of preservice preparation yield little predictive validity in terms of teaching success (Strom and Howey, 1986), it is important that other measures be instituted early on and throughout the first year of teacher preparation in order to screen candidates who are not likely to succeed as teachers. This is hardly to say that academically talented people are not desired in teaching, but rather, that other human qualities are also important. If candidates demonstrate a profile highly discrepant from these, this discrepancy should be detected as early as possible. Teacher education programs perennially have been characterized as "easy access" majors. For example, Clark and Marker (1975) decried the limited influence of the pedagogical program in that in most institutions, teacher education students' affiliation was largely in their major, particularly at the secondary level. Clark (1984) refers to this embeddedness as the "charm" of teacher education.

This charm is easy accessibility in every sense: it is geographically proximate to the consumer, easy to enter, short in duration, optimally convenient to other parts of the student's academic program, easy to complete, inexpensive, nonexclusive (it does not rule out other career options), and until recently, it assured the graduate a reasonably good chance for employment. (p. 15)

This easy access to teacher education is a function of the limited effect of traditional screening devices to effectively counsel out or make competitive degree programs in teacher education. Early screening is advocated in terms of fairness to the candidates relative to their time and resources, to the institution where teacher education remains a highly personal, labor-intensive investment, and to the taxpayer. More rigorous early screening could do considerable good for the tarnished image of teacher education as less than rigorous. Higher standards tend to attract better students and the considerable increase in applicants for programs which raised their standards is evidence of this "expectation theory" widely documented elsewhere (RATE, 1988).

The *Nation at Risk* report (1983) drew attention to the low academic quality of teacher candidates. Numerous scholars also have

documented low SAT/ACT scores (Weaver, 1979 and 1981, Dearman and Plisko, 1982, Vance and Schlechty, 1982, and Darling-Hammond, 1984). Not only did disproportionate numbers of teacher candidates fall in the low quartiles of standardized tests, but also those who stayed in teaching tended to be more from the lower quartiles than from the higher quartiles (Schlechty and Vance, 1981 and Vance and Schlechty, 1982).

The infatuation with testing as a quality assurance for both admission to teacher education and admission to licensure has commonly resulted in massive state adoption of testing procedures. Forty-six states have regulations requiring some form of competency assessment of teachers, 41 of which use some form of standardized test for this requirement (Sandefur, 1986, and Wise and Darling-Hammond, 1987). Twenty-five states require testing for admission to teacher education programs (Sandefur, 1986).

Typically test scores for entrance to teacher education programs include the use of ACT/SAT scores, high school GPA and class rank, and testing administered by the local college or university, selected from among the Pre-Professional Skills Test (PPST), the California Achievement Test (CAT), the California Basic Education Skills Test (CBEST), and the Core Battery of the National Teachers Examination, including tests for communications skills and general knowledge. Other parts of the National Teachers Examination (NTE) are used for exit assessment from the teacher education program, including the test for pedagogical knowledge and specialty area examinations. Almost three-quarters of programs preparing teachers (73 percent) that were recently surveyed had increased admissions standards, drawing upon the measures identified above (RATE, 1989).

Nonetheless, concerns continue to be registered about the major reliance on these tests and the apparent assumption by many that they are predictive measures of eventual teacher success. While most states support the obvious criterion of "knowledge" (typically knowledge of liberal studies, knowledge of content, and knowledge of pedagogical studies), even this "knowledge" does not predict teaching success. Rather, the above tests are better at predicting subsequent test success than serving as valid indicators of effective teaching (Anrig, 1985; Gifford, 1986; Pugach and Raths, 1983; Shalock and Myton, 1988; and Flippo, 1986). Also, it appears that these tests have adverse effects on minority populations (Witty, 1982 and Stedman, 1984).

Assessment Systems

According to Wise and Darling-Hammond (1987), a valid and reliable assessment system must measure whether teaching candidates possess the essential knowledge that serves good teaching, the ability to apply that knowledge in different contexts, and the skill to be responsive to students and their learning in the practical setting of the classroom. This perspective reflects the recent movement toward authentic testing in this country.

This propensity for using these tests stems, we believe, from three conditions: 1) the tendency of policymakers to select efficient means in establishing standards; 2) the slow evolution of our understanding and articulation of the complexities of teaching, tending rather to portray teaching as indicated earlier, in more limited and technical terms; and 3) the lack of serious attention to alternative means of assessment.

In terms of the first point, measurement strategies that adequately serve policy-makers are likely to be those which address formal objectives, are time and cost efficient, widely applicable, centrally administered, easily quantifiable, and relatively unlitigious. Those responsible for administering teacher education programs also look for vehicles that will differentiate candidates in a manageable and efficient manner. In contrast, measurement designed to support diagnosis employed not only for screening but also for planning educative experiences is more likely to be informal, context specific, locally administered and scored, sensitive to student progress, meaningful to students, useful for generating immediate feedback, and, ideally, inclusive of tasks that have instructional value in themselves (Shepard, 1989 and Madaus, 1989 and 1985).

In terms of the second point, while our knowledge of pedagogy continues to grow, our knowledge of the desired behaviors or qualities of good teaching is still limited (Woolever, 1985; Soar, Medley and Coker, 1983; and Sykes, 1983). Quality teaching is commonly equated with "effective" teaching. And, effective teaching tends to be narrowly focused on teaching behaviors correlated with student achievement as measured by scores (Porter, 1988). It is argued that test developers have failed to well define domains of common knowledge and skills of pedagogy across different teaching areas, at all grade levels, and in all content areas (Madaus, 1987).

Assessment Relative to One's View of Teaching

With regard to entry measures, standardized tests simply do not attend to the complexities, uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and value conflict inherent in the task of teaching (Schon, 1983). A view of teaching that compromises the highly complex nature of the

phenomenon has multiple negative implications. The view of teaching one embraces has manifested consequences for how programs of preservice preparation are designed and carried out. For example, a thoughtfully conceived conception of teaching embracing explicit dimensions of its complexity can contribute to the following:

- Shared beliefs, faculty collegiality, and on-going program renewal
- Considerations of curriculum scope, sequence, integration and articulation
- What is valued in a teacher and what is expected of the prospective teacher; more noble and less pedestrian visions of teaching contribute in substantive ways to the socialization and professionalization of teachers
- A shared sense of reasonableness for what should be expected of a prospective teacher by identifying a limited number of core dispositional behaviors which emanate from the conception(s)
- More realistic role definitions for teachers through conceptions of teaching that fully acknowledge the realities of schools as workplaces
- An explicit, coherent design for programmatic research and evaluation

Early Screening and Predictive Validity

More attention is needed to assess qualifications for teaching success hinged on a series of diagnostic simulations, written inventories, and clinical observations early on in teacher education programs. These diagnostic procedures should be explicitly and directly related to a limited number of key qualities correlated with effective teaching. Strom and Howey (1987) focused on a set of human qualities that they argue are predictive of teaching success. They derived their dispositional behaviors from a conceptual framework embedded in related constructs of psychological maturity. They portray teaching as highly interactional, interpersonal, and interpretive (oriented toward complex decision-making and problem-solving abilities). Their key dispositions include tolerance for ambiguity, adaptability, knowledge about and sensitivity to individual and cultural differences, moral sensitivity, a degree of reflectiveness versus impulsivity, and a disposition for dealing with dilemmas and conflicts.

They identify multiple measures to assess these dispositions, often in the form of simulated activities in laboratory settings which can be employed throughout the first months after admission into a program of teacher preparation. Strom and Howey (1987) summarize why the identification of core

Howey (1987) summarize why the identification of core dispositions such as those above framed in a conception of teaching that is supported by research and theory are important:

- When qualities, such as those just mentioned, or those exemplified in persons reflecting a high level of psychological maturity are made explicit, they suggest a noble and select vocation as opposed to the pedestrian, technist conception of teaching that is so prevalent in much of the literature and discussions about teachers today.
- The vision we have of a teacher is critical for a number of reasons. Our conception of a teacher tends to be a self-fulfilling prophecy in terms of: (a) the goals toward which our teacher preparation activities are oriented, (b) the roles assumed and behaviors modeled by teachers, and (c) the images of teaching which the public accepts and is willing to support.
- We are largely unclear about the extent to which persons who enter teacher preparation programs possess these qualities. We believe, however, that they are important, definable, and, to an extent, measurable.
- The assessment of selected qualities, especially across institutions over time, would allow systematic study of their relationship to measures of teaching effectiveness. In instances where they are demonstrated as predictive of effectiveness, or valued for some other reason, the question of whether these qualities can/should be used in selection or can/should be developed within the context of teacher preparation can then be addressed.

Certainly, context feeds into a consideration of which criteria to use in selection—the present and historical set of circumstances in teacher education, interpretations of competing professional values, the expectations of the public, and the needs of prospective students. Resources such as time, money, faculty knowledge, and skills available to promote personal qualities considered desirable in teachers dictate what is doable and appropriate in terms of early screening. The central point, however, is that a relatively early profile of preservice students can serve important purposes in terms of better career counseling and specific role counseling within teaching (elementary versus secondary) as well as inherent instructional value for teacher candidates. A two-pronged strategy is suggested. Pilot efforts to develop screening and counseling procedures should be supported. Second, a data base should be developed over time to investigate the reliability and validity of these measures as indicators of the general behavioral traits and critical general abilities needed to teach successfully.

*Recommendations
for Program
Selection*

1. The concept of teacher selection into programs of preparation needs to be extended beyond present pre-entry admissions procedures which rely on written measures of aptitude and

achievement. This effort should be designed to promote a variety of diagnostic activities in the early phases of programs which will more rigorously screen candidates than typically done at present. SEAs, in partnership with teacher preparation programs in higher education, could assume an important role in the identification, evaluation, and cataloguing of diagnostic activities designed to evaluate preservice students' general behavioral dispositions and abilities related to effective teaching.

2. The development of laboratory facilities in which simulations and problem-solving exercises can occur which provide a profile early on in the program of a teacher candidate's disposition for teaching should be promoted. This could be the first phase in the development of a teaching portfolio for teacher candidates. Small competitive grants to higher education might be a means of promoting this development.
3. The prevalent perception is that teacher preparation affords easy access and little further screening to those once admitted. This is in itself a deterrent to many who might otherwise enter teacher preparation. Institutional data sets should be required which record the number of applicants to programs of teacher preparation, the number of those admitted, the number screened and counseled out, and the number graduated and subsequently licensed. Follow-up studies of graduates into their first years of teaching should build off this data base and expand it to examine indices of success in actual teaching situations.

PART THREE

More Coherent and Potent Programs of Initial Teacher Preparation

The Current Context

As is the situation with classroom teaching, the education of teachers is a considerable challenge, commonly undertaken in conditions that are far less than ideal. Teacher preparation occurs in a variety of institutional contexts with varying degrees of resources and quality control. As such, there are instances of best practice, questionable practice, and even indefensible practice. For example, the proliferation of teacher preparation programs in the United States far exceeds that of any other professional group in terms of the number and range of types of institutions who prepare teachers. At present, nearly 1,300 teacher education institutions with programs at the baccalaureate, masters, and doctoral levels prepare teachers. The range of resources in teacher education accompanying these efforts extends from two full-time faculty members to more than 200 faculty in major research-oriented institutions. This is not to imply that bigger is better. Problems, common and unique, are found across institutions of various size. There is, nonetheless, some minimal level of resources or capacity for offering quality programs of preservice preparation.

Voluntary national accreditation in the form of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teachers (NCATE) has established new standards and assessment procedures in an attempt to limit poor quality programs. To date, however, only slightly more than 500 colleges and universities nationwide are accredited by NCATE. Authority at the state level to determine which institutions can prepare teachers has resulted in program review processes in only about half of the states. This by no means casts an effective net for general quality assurance. (We will return to this concern for program review and assessment shortly.)

Limited study of teacher preparation constrains generalizations about the level of quality of this endeavor. The AACTE/RATE studies do suggest, however, that attention to the splendid efforts of many individual teacher educators across a spectrum of institutions is largely unacknowledged given the recent and widespread criticism directed toward teacher education. For example, RATE (1989) data, collected for four consecutive years, revealed that the overwhelming majority of teacher education faculty and students give high marks to their preservice programs. Faculty tend to

devote considerably more time and effort to students and to their courses and related field experiences than many have suggested. Students, surprisingly to many, report not only that they spend considerable time and effort in the pursuit of their studies but also that education courses typically are at least as academically challenging as the studies they engage in outside of education. Continuing modifications of programs and increased efforts to work more closely with those in schools are also reported by the majority of institutions preparing teachers in the RATE Study (1989).

Notwithstanding the yeoman efforts of many individual teacher educators, serious problems beset preservice teacher preparation. As we have indicated, the quality of programs across institutions is clearly uneven. The collective faculty commitment to coherent programs of teacher preparation is not nearly as strong as the individual commitment to students and one's own courses. The resources to support initial teacher preparation are wanting, even in the best of existing programs, especially laboratory facilities found commonly in other professional schools. The RATE study further shows that faculty express major reservations about their students' ability to effectively teach culturally diverse and "at-risk" students. Preservice students' self-reports validate the veracity of this perception. Graduates are understandably disposed not to teach where the needs are greatest. While these preservice teachers have confidence generally in their ability to demonstrate core technical and performative skills, the moral, ethical, and political dimensions of teaching appear neither to be much reflected upon nor even understood by many of them. Major insights accrued from studies of teaching and how one learns to teach are simply not reflected in many preservice curricula. Finally a highly parochial, if not insular, perspective relative to schools and their role in this rapidly changing global society is commonly evidenced by novice teachers.

The authors recently completed case studies of programs of teacher education in the Midwest (Howey and Zimpher, 1989). We studied programs in the different types of institutions that prepare teachers. One of these is the regional university with a large teacher preparation program. The Vice Chancellor at one of these institutions described the student body as follows:

We have an interesting student body and one which is somewhat different from the students at the "Big 10" institutions. In excess of 50 percent of the students on this campus come from communities with populations of fewer than 10,000. They grew up either in small towns or on farms. Typically, they've lived in one family. They are first-generation college students; their parents have not been

to college. Often, they're the first ones in their peer group to attend college. They've not travelled. I've met many students who have not been outside of Wisconsin — or if they have been, it's only to the Twin Cities [St. Paul and Minneapolis]. That's as far as they've travelled. They know no minorities. In fact, many have never met a minority. Consequently, one of our goals is to acquaint them with minorities while they're here. (p. 128)

In summary, while the efforts of many individual teacher educators are notable, collective efforts resulting in cumulatively powerful, coherent programming are far less common. While much can be commended, much more remains to be done before we can be satisfied with the quality of teacher preparation.

Common Problems

An overarching goal for preservice education is to ensure that preservice programs are developed which provide for initial preparation of candidates who can function as competent novices in school placements designed as initial assignments and differentiated from more experienced teachers. The following are common institutional constraints to this goal:

- There typically is not an all-college or all-university commitment to preservice programs.
- There is a lack of resources to sustain adequate preservice designs.
- There is a lack of incentives for faculty members to engage in program development and school-university collaboration.

In summary, as one observer of teacher education in this country has commented:

Perhaps the most important thing that could happen that would both improve schools and preservice teacher education would be for school systems to take real responsibility for the professional development of teachers. It was noted above that teacher educators seem all too willing to say that they can ready their students to be effective teachers. School systems have been all too happy to sustain that myth and this has been one reason given for the minuscule investment in teachers' learning made by most school systems. It seems ironic that schools — which exist because of the social needs to develop the cognitive capabilities, knowledge, and skills of individuals — assume only marginal responsibility for the development of their own workers on whose expertise the successful performance of their mission depends. It is interesting to speculate how good America's schools could be, and how good American education could be, if the nation invested half as much in the growth of teachers capabilities as it invests in the professional skills of its military personnel. (Hawley, 1988)

We have identified the following programmatic constraints:

- There is lack of understanding of what should constitute the nature of programs in determining preservice education as an intervention.
- There is a lack of clear articulation between the general studies curriculum and the teacher preparation curriculum.
- There is limited attention to the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching.
- There is a lack of systematic, well-articulated, sequential, meaningful, and significant school-based field experiences throughout the program.
- There is a lack of appropriate content and experiences to assure teacher candidate competence in working with at-risk populations.

Beyond this, scholarly inquiry into teaching and learning how to teach is uncommon, and findings from general pedagogical research, especially, are not well embedded in many preservice curricula. Howey recently summarized the situation as follows:

Until relatively recent times pedagogy could be accurately characterized as basically craft wisdom acquired over time as one gained fuller understanding of and more adequate responses to the subtleties and complexities of the classroom. Today, however, we have crossed the threshold of major new insights into teaching and learning and are acquiring guiding principles for instruction. . . during the last decade especially four distinct chains of inquiry, with multiple variations within these, have confluenced to assist us in more fully understanding the highly interactive nature of teaching. In these lines of inquiry teaching is rightfully viewed as a highly intellectual activity and the relationships to what the teacher thinks and does and how learning occurs are underscored. These chains of inquiry are: (1) contemporary cognitive research into both teachers' and students' thinking; (2) cognitive-developmental research not only into children, but adolescents and adults; (3) social-cognitive research; how academic learning is mediated by the powerful organizational and cultural dimensions of the classroom; and (4) study of pedagogical strategies and tactics which at times are incorporated into conceptually coherent instructional patterns and training models. (Howey, p. 2, 1988)

There is concomitantly an absence of well-articulated laboratory and clinical experiences that are undergirded by state-of-the-art technologies, resources, and materials that enables one to learn to teach. Berliner makes the point well:

What I am arguing is that some of our research findings (for example, findings about wait-time, or success rate, or structuring, or monitoring, or corrective feedback, and a dozen others), some of our richest concepts (for example, academic learning time, withitness, opportunity to learn, curriculum alignment, and a dozen others, and some of our well-developed technology (for example, mastery learning, contracting cooperative learning, behavior management, elements of effective instruction a la Madeline Hunter, and so forth) must be taught in a different way than we now teach them. What I believe is that some parts of our program of teacher education can now become laboratory based. (p. 6, 1987)

We have identified the following common concerns relative to teacher preparation faculty and students:

- Faculty responsibilities in preservice programs tend to be labor intensive and tied to multiple functions: teaching, advising, supervising and working with experienced teachers in schools.
- The limited social/cultural demography of faculty constrains against the development of multicultural sensitivities for students.
- There is a lack of faculty experience or ability to develop case knowledge necessary to undergird strong laboratory experiences.
- Many preservice students have jobs, and thus, between this, their family and social lives, and their homework have little time to interact with the broader, more diverse culture of campus life.
- Students are but rarely organized into mutually supportive and collaboratively designed group or cohorts over time.
- Students are but rarely employed to gather data and to document the effects of their engagement with various activities in the preservice program over time, in this way both learning about evaluation and also contributing in a major way to better assessment of these preservice programs.

These problems that we have documented in our studies vary from program to program and from institution to institution, often dramatically. Nonetheless, given a broad range of issues and problems which might be addressed in preservice preparation, we have selected five strategies that we believe speak to the most central problems associated with teacher preparation:

- To give greater attention in program approval procedures to factors which appear to provide coherence and potency to programs of preservice preparation; to focus especially on multicultural dimensions and to exit as well as entry criteria
- To support **planned program variation** in preservice preparation designed specifically to address basic shortcomings in present practice

- To support the design and development of facilities and materials for laboratory and clinical training
- To support the increased involvement of competent veteran teachers in teacher preparation, especially in the clinical and field preparation of preservice teachers and to strengthen college/school collaboration generally
- To place increased emphasis on and support for program evaluation in designs that relate program approval more specifically to **accreditation** and preservice **preparation** more directly to **entry year education**

*Standards Addressing
Key Program
Elements*

Study of efficacious programs should be a prerequisite measure to setting standards for what constitutes an accredited program. A potent program of preservice teacher education is more than a series of largely independent courses, offered in any variety of sequences, basically devoid of well-conceived and supervised laboratory and clinical experiences and culminating in "student" teaching which is limited to a quarter or semester in length. Building upon emerging research, the following should be examined more thoroughly in terms of their contributions to defining programs:

- How theory and research support different conceptions of teaching and learning to teach and how these might provide an explicit framework for structuring coherent programs
- How a reasonable number of core dispositional behaviors desired in preservice students are addressed thematically and repeatedly throughout a program
- How these themes contribute over time to preservice students' conceptual development and beliefs about teaching
- How the scope and sequence of activities in a program are structured so that experiences of students build developmentally one on the other
- How both laboratory and clinical activities are regularly interspersed throughout the program to allow pedagogical knowledge acquired by preservice students to be practiced and experimented with in both simulated and K-12 classroom teaching/learning contexts
- How knowledge is represented for students in a variety of pedagogical formats throughout a program beyond lecture and recitation
- How multiple sources of knowledge, including alternative forms of scholarship are made evident to preservice students to employ in the solution of problems of practice
- How cohort experiences for preservice students are integrated into the program

In our field studies (Howey and Zimpher, 1989) we identified these and other attributes that appeared to contribute to coherent programs of preservice teacher preparation and also to a sense of growth over time by the students we interviewed. Our work, however, is at the hypothesis-setting stage and more study is warranted. We are deeply indebted to Judson Hixson and NCREL for the support of this initial study. However, much more work is needed as we cautioned:

In summary, just as no simple formula is found for designing elementary and secondary schools that are more effective than others, no simple formula is found for designing programs of teacher preparation that might differentiate themselves as more effective than others. Identifiable conditions and characteristics have, however, been enumerated by faculty and students with whom we visited and observed that appear to contribute in substantial ways to the education of teachers, and we attempted to describe some of these. We realize much work remains to be done to validate their potency individually and in various combinations. (p. 254)

Support of Planned Program Variation

In work which we have engaged in collaboratively with the Minnesota Board of Teaching, we have begun to identify both common purposes for and forms of planned program variation. We have identified three major purposes for planned program variation:

- Improving the quality of teacher education in cost-effective ways; that is, gaining needed understandings in terms of how teachers actually learn to teach and what conditions enable this
- Attracting a high quality and more diverse teaching force than at present in terms of race, age and gender; that is, improving access to teacher preparation for special populations, and
- Forging closer links between changes and improvements in the education of teachers and needed changes and improvements in K-12 schools; that is, contributing to improvements not only in teacher preparation but to the school conditions in which these teachers will eventually teach

We will elaborate briefly on each of these in an attempt to provide a rationale and guidelines for a study of well-conceived alternatives to common practice. By now it should be clear that we take the position that programs which have some conceptual coherence can provide a more interrelated, focused and cumulative impact on the preservice students than programs reflecting a series of loosely coupled courses. Since there are alternative, even competing frameworks to guide programs, the multiple effects of these need to be studied. For example, learning to teach for some is primarily

learning subject matter, and for others it is the mastery of general pedagogical skills that are assumed to transcend subject matter and that can eventually be demonstrated in order to prove "competence." These two orientations, while not mutually exclusive, are emphasized to considerably different degrees at present. Increasingly, pedagogical content knowledge or teaching ability related to specific subject matter is emphasized. Also, the notion that teaching is fundamentally an intellectual and clinical endeavor is increasingly acknowledged. This orientation believes that the beginner cannot easily apply general principles to the many daily complex judgments encountered in a room full of youngsters or adolescents. The novice needs specific ways of reasoning or thinking about teaching and learning. In this view of learning to teach what is needed is sustained and structured discourse between the beginning teacher and the experienced teacher, about key decisions made in the classroom. One does not learn to teach merely by observation of another teacher or through sustained practice of skills alone, but rather through highly structured, critical discourse about teaching which accompanies the observation of teaching. These contrasting conceptions of how one learns to teach suggest different views of how a teacher education curriculum should be designed. Implementing these designs and testing their effects is in order.

The recruitment and selection of a more able and a more diverse teaching force than exists at present is also directly related to alternative programming. The RATE studies clearly show that the great proportion of our preservice teachers at present are monolingual, white, and female and that they desire to teach in largely middle class, small town, and suburban contexts. They have little desire and limited abilities to teach in either urban or remote rural settings. This is a problem of the first order which has major implications for the preparation as well as the recruitment of teachers.

There are problems of gender and age as well in terms of teachers we need to attract and retain. In terms of gender, youngsters in the very important formative years of schooling encounter basically only female teachers. In a society with a growing percentage of single female parents, more male role models are desperately needed in schools for these young children.

Age is also a factor as the lack of career diversification over time contributes to many veteran teachers leaving the classroom in what should be the prime of their professional lives. There is a major retention problem here, especially when attractive early retirement

plans also take teachers with many vital years remaining from the teaching force (Morris, 1982). Salary levels also tend to be capped prematurely, and instructional leadership options which can be pursued by teachers while remaining in the classroom are rare. One form of alternative teacher education programs could prepare outstanding experienced teachers for instructional leadership roles including the clinical roles needed to work with both preservice and beginning teachers. Schools and colleges of education, in concert with instructional leaders in K-12 schools, have a major role to play in this regard and SEAs could be a catalyst for bringing them together. We cannot underscore this point strongly enough.

In conclusion, alternative programs are needed which are designed specifically to attract:

- The most able students
- The culturally diverse
- Those who are disposed and able to teach in our urban and rural settings, whatever their own cultural background origins
- Males into a variety of roles in which they can work with youth in their formative years
- Veteran teachers into training for leadership responsibilities with their colleagues while they retain some teaching responsibility
- Mature adults seeking a "mid-career" shift into teaching

K-12 School and College Collaboration

Involving K-12 school personnel more fully in initial teacher preparation is a third major goal to be achieved by alternative programming. The question is not whether experienced teachers could contribute more substantively to teacher education than at present; the question is what is the best way to involve them. As we indicated earlier, one way is for them to identify, recruit, and mentor qualified young people into teaching. A second way is to assume an expanded and more formal role in the induction and positive socialization of new teachers into teaching. There is also their expanded role in the continuing education of teachers, which we will address shortly. Our point here, however, is we believe that they also have a major role to play in preservice teacher preparation.

Neither is it a question of whether they should be engaged in initial preparation. They should. The case for their extended involvement can be made on several counts. It can be argued on scientific grounds since acquiring and validating new understandings about key phenomenon related to teaching and learning calls for the central involvement of teachers in such research. Organizational theory also supports their involvement. Those most affected by

decisions — in this case the decisions about the education of teachers — should be centrally involved in making those decisions. It can also be argued that it is a matter of teachers' professional responsibility; that is, a profession should control standards for entry into the profession. Ultimately their involvement is a political reality. Teacher education simply cannot be substantively advanced without the full support and involvement of teachers and the teacher unions. A fundamental question for us is how can teachers assume further responsibilities in these regards without detracting from their primary function of educating America's youth and without making their already difficult task even more difficult?

We speak repeatedly to this basic question throughout this report. Key to resolving the question of how teachers might assume expanded responsibilities is the promotion and development of new and altered roles for teachers. All teachers simply need not devote all of their time to instructing youth; a variety of other critical functions can be assumed by select teachers while still teaching part-time. We underscore that these altered roles and responsibilities will demand further preparation and reimbursement. However, the extended first-hand involvement of teachers in matters pertaining to teacher education should yield multiple benefits by both improving the quality of beginning teachers and contributing as well to the quality and retention of experienced teachers and, ultimately and most fundamentally, to the quality of instruction offered students in our K-12 schools.

Although teachers can learn much from enlightened teacher educators about clinical training, we cannot underscore strongly enough how much this is a reciprocal and mutually beneficial interaction. Teacher educators, as we suggested earlier, are commonly overextended. They often work in isolation from one another. Many frequently have less contact with researchers adapting research into practice than enlightened staff developers in schools (Marsh, 1987). In this regard, Vaughan in reporting on research utilization projects in schools concluded:

Frequently overlooked, however, was the parallel need for faculty development at the IHE [institution of higher education]. There were many proposals with ongoing seminars planned in which both IHE and LEA [local education authority] faculty would participate, but they frequently seemed to be focused on LEA staff for development and on IHE staff for collaboration. (p. 10)

In their analysis of schools and colleges of education in *ED School: A Brief for Professional Education* (1988), Clifford and Guthrie

underscore that a professional school is characterized by its work with practitioners to enrich their wisdom.

In summary, we strongly advocate that incentives be provided to teacher training institutions to develop new program initiatives which are alternatives to present practice and which will:

- Demonstrate more thematic coherence and programmatic interrelatedness in turn promoting teachers who have defensible belief systems and data-based arguments for their teaching
- Attract a more diverse preservice teacher population and in more pervasive ways prepare all teachers for diversity
- Employ K-12 teachers and administrators much more centrally and responsibly in the initial preparation of teachers

The Importance of the College Context

There is one other priority we believe should be addressed and this concerns the promotion of better laboratory facilities as alluded to earlier. This recommendation is based on compelling evidence that shows that certain important teacher lessons are learned most cost-effectively in specifically designed contexts on a college campus:

Teacher education reform has proceeded, therefore, on the assumption that if it could be determined what is most important for teachers to know and be able to do, teacher candidates could and should be taught this, or at least much of this, in their preservice programs. The sense of efficacy related to teacher education embodied in this assumption is reinforced by a substantial body of research indicating that efforts to teach teacher education students particular competencies are often effective when the learning is assessed in the context of controlled settings (Evertson, Hawley, and Zlotnik, 1985).

A major need exists for developmental work in the design of laboratory contexts to facilitate learnings that are not acquired easily in college classrooms or in the frenetically paced classroom of another teacher during preservice training. Laboratory facilities could include interactive video stations, classrooms with video feedback and one-way mirrors as standard equipment for analyses of teaching and learning episodes using structured recall techniques after these observations, stations for case analyses, and facilities for various forms of microteaching. As Howe underscored recently:

... most enlightened educators would agree that what we are attempting to do in initial teacher preparation is promote, among other things, a disposition for intellectual discourse, logical analysis, formal critical thinking, moral reasoning — whatever your particular terminology and

variation on this theme might be. To assume that this will occur in conventional college classrooms characterized largely by lecture-recitation or in most K-12 classroom settings without major alterations is sheer folly. (Howey, 1990)

Recommendations for Preservice

In conclusion of this section of the report, we make the following recommendations relative to preservice preparation:

- Standards for what constitutes a professional education **program** need to be explicated and supported; that is, the delineation of resources, policies and practices which provide coherence, interrelatedness, and cumulative impact to the coursework and activities comprising that program.
- Seed monies should be provided to promote specific **planned variations** in preservice teacher preparation that have as their fundamental purpose either the improvement of teacher preparation, the better access to teacher preparation for those underrepresented, or better working relationships and sustained collaboration with those in K-12 schools.
- Funds should be provided for the selection and development cross-institutionally of materials and technology which can be adapted for use at various campuses for pedagogical development. This major developmental effort would include laboratory materials and activities designed to promote propositional and case knowledge, clinical diagnoses, and theory-practice-theory cycles of pedagogical experimentation and reflection. Specific cross-institutional materials development could include protocol materials, cases, and scripts for micro- and reflective teaching.
- Given projected changes in laboratory and clinical training in professional schools of education, funding formulas for the costs of different forms of laboratory and clinical instruction should be developed.
- Successful operational models should be identified for adaptation elsewhere. Select classroom teachers need to be involved in curriculum review and development and, at times, actual instruction in preservice programs. Information about these cooperative ventures should be disseminated. Priority should be given to the perspectives of classroom teachers as they pertain to the demands of urban and rural contexts characterized by conditions of poverty and cultural diversity and what these imply for prospective teachers in these settings.
- Higher quality standards should be developed than presently exist for the selection and preparation of classroom teachers who provide clinical training for preservice teachers (both pre-student teaching and student teaching) and for the school context in which that clinical training occurs. These standards should specify the conditions, characteristics, and experiences which serve as prerequisites for selection; the general type and extent of training needed for a teacher to serve in this capacity; the

minimal number of contact hours to occur between the classroom teacher and the preservice teacher in terms of mutual planning, observation and analysis, both during and after the normal instructional day; and, the minimal dollar reimbursement (or equivalent in such form as tuition waivers) for serving in this capacity.

- National accreditation should be required as a prerequisite and likely concomitant activity with state program approval. State program approval should focus on program capacity with standards derived from studies identified on pages 28 and 29. Measures of preservice student performance should be extended into the first full year of teaching and be fully examined in the context of entry-year programs as these are eventually articulated in this report.

PART FOUR

Selection into Teaching

Problems with Present Practice

While our primary concern is with the professional development of teachers across their professional life span, there are other matters related to professional development which directly affect the quality of those in the teaching force and their teaching. To complete a program of preservice preparation is one matter; to obtain a position that is consonant with one's preparation and commensurate with one's beginning levels of ability is quite another. Thus, it is a question of what can be done to ensure more effective teacher selection than exists at present so that new teachers are not assigned to positions for which they are not qualified or without consideration that they are first-year teachers.

A brief review of some of the problems attached to teacher selection again suggests possible policy and practice. First, hiring officials, who typically are district administrators and principals, do not always hire the most able in terms of how they have been assessed in their teacher preparation. Apparently, this is because they believe that these candidates do not have certain other characteristics or aptitudes, especially the ability to relate well to the school community (Berry and Hall, 1985). In this regard, most prospective teachers are hired based upon a review of their dossiers and the strength of letters of evaluation, especially the assessment of their performance in student teaching. If they pass through this initial screen, they are invariably given an employment interview. Reviews of what research has been conducted in regard to employment interviews are not promising in terms of their ability to validly predict success on the job (Young, 1984). Given what is known about interview procedures, this is not surprising. The interview is typically conducted by administrators removed from the teaching context in which the teacher will teach. The average interview lasts less than one hour, and the interviewer tends to talk about 80 percent of the time (Acuff, 1981). Bucalo (1978) found that the interviewer's questions do not tend to elicit the interviewee's knowledge relative to the specifics of the job situation. Yet we know from many studies of teaching behaviors that teaching effectiveness is very context-specific. We also know that in terms of teacher assessment, the closer the match between the context in which the assessment of performance occurs and the context for which the candidate is being screened, the better the measure of performance

will predict later success. Nonetheless, there appears to be little approximation of this type of measurement in selection procedures.

Structured Interviews

Some school districts do employ structured interviews wherein trained interviewers ask predetermined questions designed to solicit whether "propensities" exist that the district values in their teachers, such as perseverance, adaptability, and dependability. This technique, however, may well exacerbate the problem as Wise, Darling-Hammond, and Berry (1988) report:

However, no publicly available scientific evidence supports the validity of virtually any of the instruments in use. Some instruments may, in fact, eliminate well-qualified candidates. In one case we examined some of the questions posed and the scoring procedures used systematically discriminate against candidates who are cognitively oriented. (p. 83)

Many districts have very limited or no involvement of teachers in the hiring process, especially those who will work most closely with the candidate. While we acknowledge that, in many instances, teachers are hired prior to the district's knowing where they will be assigned, there are compelling arguments that can be made for teachers to be involved in this procedure. Not only is consonance between prior experience and training and the specific teaching assignment critical, but also the quality of the working relationship with other teachers in that context affects teaching success. Also, beginning teachers often need a support system. Studies of "effective" schools repeatedly identify a dimension of professional collegiality as enabling desired outcomes for pupils. Fuller teacher involvement in the selection process could address both questions of congruence between interests and abilities and the actual demands of the new role, it could also provide some indication of their ability to collaborate with specific individuals in that context.

Given problems in many instances with selection procedures at the local level, we offer the following recommendations:

Recommendations for Teacher Selection

- Seed monies should be provided for the development of prospective teacher portfolios by institutions preparing teachers. Multiple measures of performance should be included in these portfolios. Following this developmental stage, workshops should be sponsored to promote 1) variations in portfolios and 2) means of presenting materials from these portfolios to hiring officials (including experienced teachers).
- A study of structured interview systems presently employed across districts in the various states should be undertaken. Two

fruitful areas of focus in such study, beyond describing common practice, would be to reexamine the scientific evidence for the qualities being assessed in these procedures on the one hand and the retention rates and measures of subsequent teaching effectiveness of teachers selected through different structured interview techniques on the other.

- Model hiring practices should be identified, and information about these disseminated. The emphasis should be on situations wherein veteran teachers have opportunity to observe the candidates in contexts very similar to that in which the candidate would eventually teach if selected (perhaps the very classroom could be used). The observed lesson could be preceded and followed by a focused group interview, perhaps incorporating aspects of the teaching clinic as described in the following section on entry-year programs.

PART FIVE

Toward Entry-Year Designs as a Necessary Extension of Preservice

The purposes of an entry-year program are to ensure that three essential services are provided to the beginning teachers in their critical first year of teaching: a) continuing personal support; b) regular and responsive educative experiences which both extend and enrich their initial preparation and address the particular demands of their teaching situation; and c) on-going feedback and assessment of their performance and progress over time, culminating in a summative decision by the end of this year as to whether they should be relieved of their teaching responsibilities, continue on an initial licensure track, or be placed on a regular licensure track. The design hinges on the assignment of a veteran teacher prepared to provide clinical training and personal support and partially released from their instructional responsibilities to work in a continuing manner with the beginning teacher. Ideally, the beginning teacher would be assigned to an experienced teacher; in the same building and ideally in the same subject matter area or at the same grade level. Ideally, the beginning teacher would also have some choice in the selection of this teacher. Practical realities suggest that the above ideals cannot be met in many instances.

Essential Conditions

We believe there are certain conditions which need to be met. The experienced teacher should meet selection criteria (which we will elaborate upon shortly) appropriate to this helping role. Beyond this, it is especially important that these experienced teachers have successfully completed a program preparing them for this responsibility. A minimal amount of release time for both parties is also essential from our perspective. We recommend a one-half day release time per week for both the beginning and experienced teacher.

The primary cost of this proposed program would be one day of substitute teaching per week for the pair at an average of \$75 per day. Over 36 weeks this comes to approximately \$2,700. The actual costs would vary depending upon daily substitute rates and the ability of larger districts to employ a cadre of permanent, but 'floating,' substitute teachers who could provide release time for five days of veteran and novice teachers weekly. Some have suggested that the money to cover these costs be partially garnered from a slightly reduced beginning teacher salary. Others suggest

that local districts assume a portion of the costs. We view this as one more disincentive to enter teaching in the former instance and an additional economic burden on districts, many of which are already financially strapped. We believe that the money should flow from the state and be viewed as a logical extension of the cost incurred in educating a beginning teacher.

The role and responsibility of those in preservice teacher education in this model is twofold. First, in a consortium arrangement and through regional training facilities, they would offer continuing, credit-bearing seminars for beginning teachers. These seminars would be congruent with major thematic goals originally addressed in preservice preparation programs. Second, and more fundamentally, those in preservice programs, along with those in K-12 schools, would offer a developmental series of courses for experienced teachers culminating in an additional certificate to a teaching license and signifying expertise as clinicians to work with the beginning teachers. While any number of titles could be employed for the veteran teachers who complete such a program, the title of consulting teacher or clinical teacher would perhaps best connote the functions performed.

The cost of providing these courses could be paid in tuition by those teachers desiring clinical certification. These monies would be distributed across institutions of higher education and schools of education per their contribution to this training. The incentives for teachers to enroll in a tuition-bearing program would derive from the benefits attached to the clinical assignment for which this training is a prerequisite; that is, a leadership opportunity with some time reallocated from their instruction to pursue it and reasonable remuneration for doing so.

The regional training centers would also afford continuing educative services to the beginning teachers, again collaboratively designed and delivered by those in higher education and K-12 schools. At times the consulting veteran teachers would meet with the beginning teachers in these activities, but typically the beginning teachers would meet separately in cohorts in order to form networks of beginning teachers who could provide support to one another over time. They would meet approximately every other week with the sessions continuing throughout the year. Participation would be mandated for all beginning teachers as a condition of employment and as an extension of their preservice preparation. Course work would be offered at the graduate level and serve as the foundation for an advanced degree.

Rationale for the Design

The primary rationale for the entry-year program is that it would lead to discernably better instruction for youngsters in the classrooms where beginning teachers are assigned. The position taken here is that it is unreasonable to expect the same level and quality of instruction from a first-year teacher as from more experienced teachers and that compensatory assistance needs to be provided to that teacher. Support for this position derives from studies which continue to find major differences in both diagnostic and planning abilities, as well as classroom performance, between more experienced and novice teachers generally (Shulman, 1987).

Continued support and education into the first year of teaching from this perspective isn't some peripheral nicety. It is necessary on-the-job training that is both complementary to and an extension of preservice preparation. The major up-front training which many major corporations provide for their new recruits with recently completed degrees is a prime example of the need generally to provide substantial assistance in the critical transition from general professional preparation to the specifics of the workplace.

The number of pupils receiving instruction in first-year teachers' classrooms annually would be a figure to employ in making the case to legislatures and policymakers for the benefits of augmented assistance in the first year of teaching. The case should be made that this is the number of youngsters who would considerably benefit from such an arrangement.

The case for this continued education can also be made in that not everything can be learned in what is now construed as preservice preparation; there are, in fact, discernible gaps in many programs. Data from the ongoing RATE studies (1989) speak to some of these. For example, it appears that foundations of education study gives short shrift to several core disciplines such as history, economics, and political science. In several institutions, the foundations program does not include study in philosophy, history, and sociology. Foundations courses are frequently taught by faculty whose graduate academic training is in areas other than those core disciplines typically represented by foundations courses.

Our field studies in a cross-section of midwestern institutions that prepare teachers also revealed limitations in initial preparation:

While we observed themes of various types in the program of teacher education we visited, rarely did we see strands focused specifically on the moral and ethical dimensions of what is a highly moral endeavor. Again, the dominant emphasis in most institutions remains on the technical and communicative dimensions of teaching. Also, while we

observed more diversity of instruction than we anticipated, attention to learning within groups and using classrooms to promote social development, as articulated in the works of such scholars as Robert Slavin, and David Johnson and Roger Johnson, was uncommon. The attention to interventions designed to alter the climate of the classroom and to promote various interpersonal dispositions and skills, was not readily apparent in programs of teacher education and this is especially difficult to understand given the social nature of schooling.

Regardless of the extent to which curriculum gaps exist in preservice programs, there is, nonetheless, a primary need to revisit major concepts and understandings addressed during preservice training but seldom fully comprehended nor internalized at that time by preservice teachers. In fact, numerous follow-up studies of graduates from teacher preparation institutions demonstrate that teachers in the first years of teaching don't even recall encountering subject matter that was, in fact, addressed repeatedly in the curriculum and which they now find central to their professional lives (Katz and Raths, 1981). In the teacher education literature this phenomenon is referred to as the "feed forward" problem, surely a condition not unlike that which occurs in other professional training wherein the lack of opportunity to adapt the knowledge or skill to a practical reality and in a timely manner preempts internalization and later application. In a "spiral" curriculum design, major themes and concepts have to be revisited by novice teachers when they have the scope of responsibility that comes only with being in charge of one's own classroom.

Recent studies (Barnes, 1989) also suggest that the development of teachers, especially relative to beliefs which guide how they teach, is related to their ability to develop conceptual frames or schema over time as a result of repeated exposure to and the revisiting of key ideas.

*Professional
Consensus on Core
Understandings and
Abilities*

We should underscore that a major corollary benefit of identifying key concepts and themes which should be addressed again in the first year of teaching is to achieve a better degree of professional, consensual agreement in terms of the core or essential aspects of teacher preparation across those developing the curriculum in programs of preservice preparation. Although individual prerogative and academic autonomy are essential characteristics in promoting the growth of knowledge and preserving the major artistic dimensions of teaching, there needs to be fuller professional agreement about core understandings and abilities for all teachers. A cooperatively planned and conducted extension of preservice

teacher education would contribute in a major way to achieving this goal and the need for such discourse across institutions preparing teachers should not be underestimated.

Although the rationale for entry year should begin with the quality of instruction offered in first-year teachers' classrooms and the understandable unfinished agenda of preservice preparation, additional arguments can be made for the structured and sustained education of these new teachers at least into the first year of their teaching. Structured entry-year education is:

- The logical extension of preservice culminating in the largely **experiential** aspects of learning to teach; it is needed to promote farther conceptual development on the part of teachers; also, there are particularistic and context-specific understandings that can only be acquired at this time
- A compensatory means of providing quality education to youngsters in novices' classrooms that is more equivalent with that instruction afforded youngsters in more experienced teachers' classrooms
- An incentive for new teachers to pursue assignments in contexts and settings where high quality, new teachers are especially needed; that is, urban and remote rural areas and where new teachers are not inclined to seek positions without such support
- An opportunity to screen out teachers early who find that they lack the necessary attitudes and dispositions to work effectively **over time** with youngsters in a classroom context
- A means of improving the retention rate of many outstanding veteran teachers, who, at the peak of the careers have some aspirations beyond classroom teaching and thus often leave classroom responsibilities because there are no viable alternatives; in this arrangement they can combine teaching with the role of consulting teacher
- A vehicle for achieving more effective partnerships between those in higher education and those in K-12 schools through bringing complementary resources to bear on mutual concerns such as the joint development of the consulting teacher credential programs
- A way of modeling job-embedded forms of professional growth since these can and should occur not only between the veteran and novice teacher but also between two or more experienced teachers. Examples of job-embedded activities include many variations on clinical observation, action research formats, systematic case study of pupils, coaching, demonstration teaching, and the idea of teaching clinics which we will elaborate upon shortly
- A way to expand these job-embedded collegial approaches to professional growth to other cooperative activities which characterize good or effective schools such as shared leadership,

common behavioral expectations, shared standards, and professional collegiality

Benefits to Various Stakeholders

Our position is that the relatively nominal cost associated with extending initial teacher preparation into the first year of teaching should be provided at the state level, and further, that support from various stakeholders in education could be garnered for this strategy. For example, those in higher education / teacher education understandably benefit in numerous ways, not the least of which is more fully accomplishing a very difficult task that of preparing beginning teachers well. Teachers and teacher unions benefit from having a more central professional platform including the improved quality of initial teacher preparation, the more direct contributions of veteran teachers to this effort, and the further professional preparation of many experienced teachers in qualifying for these roles. Those in school administration benefit because this is a means to ensure more equitable instruction for youngsters across classrooms as we enter into an era where even more pronounced accountability by school and by classroom is projected. Building-level supervisors would have a major additional resource in terms of contributing to professional development, organizational well-being, and even supervision and evaluation, if these functions could in part be shouldered with consulting teachers. We are aware, for example, of instances where experienced teachers' responsibilities for beginning teacher evaluation have been worked out in contractual arrangements (PAR, 1986). Such a design would lead to increased assurances and accountability for the quality of beginning teachers that extend considerably beyond those embedded in present program approval procedures. Finally, the general public would benefit, not only from more extensive, and we hope higher quality professional preparation, but also better classroom instruction for youngsters in beginning teachers' classrooms. These entry-year programs could be the focus of research and evaluation designs in order to gather data on the effects of entry-year models in classrooms of beginning teachers with these services versus those without entry-year models.

Certainly, there are issues surrounding and problems attached to entry-year models. The approach suggested above would, after all, cost more than present arrangements. There also are those who assert that teachers can and should be wholly prepared before their initial assignment — regardless of mounting evidence of the difficulty of achieving this in present preservice arrangements. The ability to combine support, educative, and evaluative functions for first-year teachers, and especially in one role, is hotly contested by

many. Often those in positions with formal authority for evaluation, namely principals, are reluctant to share responsibilities that they believe to be their legal and professional purview. There are risks for some in drawing greater public attention to differences in the abilities of teachers at various stages of their careers. Finally, there are those both within the teaching ranks and surely among parents and community supporters who will resist any release time of teachers from student instruction. In summary of this section, however, we believe that all of the problems described are to some degree solvable, and that the benefits attached to achieving an entry-year strategy more than offset real and potential challenges.

Clinical Expertise

The key to success to induction or entry-year programs from this perspective is not just the regular interaction of veteran teachers with beginning teachers, but the regular interaction of high quality veteran teachers who have clinical expertise with beginning teachers. Therefore, the development of well-conceived programs for preparing consulting or clinical teachers for this new role is essential. This preparation cannot be reduced to a few workshop sessions, but rather should consist of a thoughtfully conceived, interrelated series of credit-bearing courses which culminate in an additional credential to initial licensure. Between 6 to 12 "graduate-level" semester credit hours should be represented in the type of training programs we envision. Our preference is that the training be jointly developed by those in institutions preparing teachers in concert with outstanding teachers, staff developers, and those in administrative and supervisory positions in K-12 schools. Offering this preparation in regional training centers provides a neutral ground for collaboration between those in colleges and those in K-12 schools. Faculty would be rotated into these centers from different institutions and K-12 schools at different times and for different purposes. At this time, these authors have achieved almost five years of experience in experimenting with different programs for preparing teachers for a variety of leadership functions. Figure 1 illustrates some of the basic understandings and abilities that we have attempted to incorporate into these pilot efforts when the focus has been on preparing teachers for a leadership role in working with beginning teachers.

Figure 1 - Explication of Knowledge Domains for Teacher Leaders

Local District Needs	Interpersonal and Adult Development	Classroom Processes and School Effectiveness	Instructional Supervision, Observation and Conferencing	A Disposition Toward Inquiry
Rationale: Teacher leaders possess knowledge of how to assess, interpret, and prioritize local district and teacher needs and concerns	Rationale: Teacher leaders possess an understanding of theories and frameworks which describe how adults develop and how teacher leaders develop personally, foster (challenge and support) teacher development, and exert leadership	Rationale: Teacher leaders possess knowledge of contemporary lines of inquiry with regard to classroom processes and school effectiveness, and they are able to translate those knowledge bases to useful practice in schools and classrooms	Rationale: Teacher leaders possess knowledge of models of clinical supervision and processes that support effective descriptions of classroom practices, analysis and feedback regarding those data, and the provision of instructional support for continuing classroom improvement	Rationale: Teacher leaders are guided by a reflective and inquiry-oriented posture to improve classroom and school practice, including processes of individual and interactive reflectivity and collaborative action research
Focus: describe the needs assessments; review frameworks for effective staff development programs (purposes and formats); review district policy; review research on common problems of teachers and schools	Focus: theories of personal, cognitive, moral, and psychosocial development; leadership theories and notions of power and authority; interpersonal relations/human strategies	Focus: reviews of research on teacher effectiveness, school effectiveness, classroom management, and models for instructional improvement; reviews of alternative conceptions of effective teaching; review descriptions of and research on instructional improvement packages	Focus: reviews of clinical supervision models; reviews of compendia of observation instruments; review of narrative scripting; review approaches to giving feedback and coaching	Focus: overview of practice-centered inquiry and collaborative action research; reviews of action research projects; reviews of research critiques
Activities: conduct district tours of the community; conduct community, school, classroom socio-grams; use cases to relate district policies to practical local dilemmas; simulate parent conferencing	Activities: collect data of teacher's personal profile using inventories and profiles; complete leadership inventories; complete sentence stem exercises; analyze moral dilemmas; engage in small group interpersonal activities	Activities: complete personal inventories of teaching style and behavior; complete analytic inventories of school contexts; write imaginary letters to beginning teachers about effective training; complete training through instructional improvement programs (Hunter, PLS, TESA, Classroom Management, and Cooperative Learning)	Activities: design personal models of clinical supervision; observe teaching in classrooms (in situ); engage in peer teaching and analysis; design sign and category systems; record observations from video tapes; create and analyze cases	Activities: formulate action research designs; conduct action research studies; complete Reflectivity Packets (critical events, logs and diaries, conduct self-interviews); complete self-inventories about classroom practice; conduct and attend research conferences

*A Model for
Preparing Expert
Clinicians*

In summary of the above figure, we have found that the major adaptation called for in the change from exclusively teaching youngsters, at whatever level, to instructing novice teachers or more experienced peers, is a fuller understanding of adult needs, and especially, in this instance, beginning teachers. Knowledge of the broader school context and its considerable effects on individual teachers is needed as well. Also, it is essential that these veteran teachers can employ guiding principles from the best of our research with regard to classroom management and effective teaching. Specific job-embedded forms of professional development, as we will address in more detail shortly, become the vehicles for the beginning teachers' adaptation of these principles to their own context. Structured observation and analyses of classroom events is a prime example of this job-embedded approach to professional development. In this arrangement the beginning teacher and the consulting teacher engage in targeted data collection about specific classroom events and conditions employing a variety of conceptual lenses to examine such factors as how social relationships among students in a classroom mediate academic instruction. The guiding image and dispositional behavior promoted in our pilot efforts has been the teacher as an inquiring professional. Thus, a heavy emphasis is placed upon inquiry-oriented activities between the two teachers including variations of action research.

Understandably, many modifications of the curriculum framework for preparing clinicians outlined in Figure 1 are possible. The implementation and systematic evaluation of alternative forms of clinical preparation is needed. Considerable attention to multicultural concerns, questions of equity, and authentic forms of pupil assessment are other priorities not elaborated upon in Figure 1. Other recent modifications in our work have resulted in more emphasis on classroom teachers' ability to use multiple strategies to assess and document the effects of instruction in their classrooms. We have also developed parallel instructional or training strands concerned with enabling self-regulated learning for youngsters, on the one hand, and with what research on learning to teach suggests for structuring interactions between the expert and novice teacher on the other. Both of these are developed within a social-cognitive framework of learning and learning to teach (Ruane-Florio, 1989).

The Teaching Clinic

The emphasis in this clinical preparation is to promote discourse about teaching as a means of promoting growth in teaching. This structured discourse is an essential adjunct both to observing outstanding teaching and to practicing it oneself, and it is at the core

of the relationships between the novice and veteran teacher. Employing structured recall techniques, both teachers have to explain and justify their teaching behavior as they conference after observing the other's teaching. The pupils participating in the lesson also could be involved in these "metacognitive" activities themselves. Over the course of time, practice is increasingly related to personal hypotheses about teaching. We refer to this job-embedded centerpiece for professional growth as a teaching clinic.

We have briefly elaborated this clinic approach to illustrate that there are different conceptual frames to guide one's view of how to enable teaching, especially in this highly experiential, first-year-of-teaching context. These various orientations will provide different guidance in the development of programs to prepare teachers as clinicians. Other literatures, for example, from which conceptual frames could be drawn to guide the preparation of clinical teachers include those concerned with teacher socialization, adult conceptual development, and experiential learning.

The Selection of Clinical Teachers

While the preparation of these consulting or clinical teachers is extremely important, so is the process whereby they are selected. In our experiences we have attempted to avoid selection procedures and selection criteria that are politically charged. We advocate that teachers constitute the majority of the selection committee and also that the committee be chaired by a teacher. Nonetheless, the committee should have broad-based participation, including administrators.

In terms of selection criteria, we believe that a minimum number of years of experience is essential to the effective conduct of this role. We also ask for multiple evidences of teaching effectiveness. We have focused in our work on attributes related more directly to this new helping relationship including: a) confidential peer ratings of helpfulness as a peer; b) documented prior experience in leadership roles and helping relationships (we acknowledge and take into account the fact that some teachers, because of family responsibilities, are constrained in this regard); c) degree of enthusiasm (self-rating) for wanting to engage in such a role and willingness to participate in the substantial training requisite to assuming the role; and finally d) the ability to express oneself orally and in writing relative to a conception of effective teaching and how one best learns to teach within a school context.

Just as there are potential alternatives to the framework we presented for preparing teachers for this role, there are other criteria understandably suitable for use in the selection of consulting teachers. Whatever these might be, we wish to underscore that considerable deliberation should be given to both procedures and criteria for screening those persons who apply for this important role. Again, selection of high-quality teachers disposed to helping others is but a prerequisite to preparation which should, of course, be modified to accommodate the experiences and abilities brought to the training by different teachers.

Once carefully selected and thoroughly prepared clinicians are in place and time provided, the cornerstone for success has been laid for assisting the beginning teacher. Adequate release time for both parties is essential. Given the opportunity to work together over time, these pairs will negotiate a variety of experiences intended to assist the novice. Central to our notion is the teaching clinic concept wherein both the experienced and novice teachers repeatedly explain and justify their teaching.

In closing, what is needed, from our perspective, are not only the structural arrangements to allow relatively frequent interaction between the beginning and experienced teacher, but also a well-conceived program of preparation for the consulting teacher which is characterized by the best of our research and theory concerned with teaching and learning to teach. Additionally, a thoughtfully conceived program for the beginning teacher which stresses both the revisiting of key concepts from preservice preparation and a substantial, continuing orientation to the local district and school context is needed. It is necessary that expert knowledge accompany structural changes in the form of release time and altered role-relationships. We believe that the former can be justified and that the latter can be acquired by those veteran teachers who wish to pursue it, to share it, and to shape it further with beginning teachers. In this regard then we put forth the following recommendations to support an entry-year program.

Recommendations for Entry into Teaching

- State-level standards for what constitutes a teacher entry-year or induction program need to be explicated and supported. This program should be a basic component of the district plan for professional development which is addressed more fully in the next section of this report and which would be submitted biannually to the SEA by local districts to qualify for professional development funds distributed on a per capita teacher basis. The standards, and subsequent local plan, should address: a) the governance of the program; b) the selection criteria for consulting teachers; c) the release time schedule for mentors and beginning teachers; d) the plan for the evaluation of beginning teachers (and

consulting teachers); and e) how standards of performance and evaluation for the beginning teacher are differentiated from those set for experienced teachers.

- A credential for clinical or consulting teachers to work both with first-year teachers and with preservice teachers should be established with the full input of those responsible for preparing teachers—teachers, teacher organization representatives, and school board and administrative representatives from local districts. Examples of the knowledge and abilities desired for this role have been suggested by the authors in this report. Given the importance of this function, the complexity of the task, its variance from regular teaching, and the potential it has for assisting experienced teachers as well as beginning teachers, the assumption is that such training would likely entail a minimum amount of time equivalent to six graduate semester hour credits.
- Regional training centers should be established to provide training for the clinical or consulting teachers and also regular seminars for first-year teachers throughout their first year(s) of teaching. These regional centers would use existing facilities but rotate faculty from across institutions of higher education along with staff development specialists from local districts to offer this training. This regional concept would ensure collaboration among institutions of higher education in order to clarify the core or essential knowledge and skills which are to be addressed by beginning teachers in the first year of teaching as an extension of preservice preparation. Other knowledge and skills would, of course, pertain to the demands of the particular context in which they pursue their first year of teaching. Thus, the design and delivery of the curriculum for consulting teachers would contribute to cooperation between those in higher education and those in K-12 schools would involve the shared use of resources, and would promote collaboration across sites.
- Approximately \$3,500.00 should be allocated annually to local districts for each beginning teacher/consulting teacher pair. This money should be targeted for release time every other week (1/2 day) for both the beginning teacher and the consulting teacher, with \$800.00 of this amount allocated for an honorarium to the consulting teacher.
- A policy should be developed which requires minimal contact hours of a supervisory nature for a beginning teacher, for example, a minimum of 30 contact hours, during the first year of teaching. This supervision can be provided solely by supervisory personnel or by supervisory personnel with consulting teachers if the local induction program endorses consulting teachers in this role. Documentation of this supervision and evidence of successful teaching performance on the part of the beginning teacher should be submitted to the state at the conclusion of the first year of teaching as prerequisite data for a regular teaching license.

PART SIX

Continuing Professional Development

We suggest the following general goals with respect to the continuing professional development of teachers:

- To ensure that a program of inservice teacher education represents a balance of institutional (state, district, school) and individual teacher goals and needs
- To achieve a level of funding devoted to the continued education of teachers that allows support for administration, governance, multifaceted data collection to establish priorities, support for those who assume staff developer roles and responsibilities, materials development, release time for teachers and a sound system of evaluation which links aspects of professional development to desired changes in schools and classrooms and to the achievement of pupils
- To embed much of continuing professional development in ongoing activities at the school site facilitated by teachers who have varying forms of expertise to share with one another in a relatively ongoing and natural manner
- To ensure that professional development activities designed to alter curriculum and instructional practice engaged in outside of the school context are subsequently followed up in classrooms

Constraints to High Quality Programming

There are numerous constraints, widely documented, to achieving these goals at this time. For example, comprehensive programs of professional development at the district level presently are rare. Resources that could support them are often targeted for other priorities. In larger districts, operating units, such as curriculum, instruction, supervision, and personnel, compete for limited inservice dollars. Since there are no codified standards for inservice teacher education and only a few instances of state formula funding, local practices vary enormously in policy and practice and typically provide for only minimal assessment of their effectiveness. Let us enumerate a few of the more pervasive problems in these regards at the outset.

The priorities for much of the professional development activities that are funded are often based primarily on political grounds and reflect different role groups' degrees of influence at various times. For example, we have moved through eras of placing administrators in the primary role for professional development, to

one of responding to individual teachers (teachers' centers), working with entire faculties (school improvement and school effectiveness projects), to generic instructional packages, to curriculum revision and alignment tied to mandated tests. These discernible cycles rarely reflect an ideal balance of attention to external/internal conditions and institutional/individual goals. Funded programs could, for example, have a tri-layered governance structure with different groups respectively attending to district, school, and individual desires and needs, with each body having a share of the budget to allocate for professional development activities devoted to these goals.

"Needs" assessment in the form of written surveys of teachers conducted annually by administration represent the most common diagnostic approach to establishing an inservice or professional development agenda. Other, more powerful, procedures and salient data sources are seldom employed. These include organizational analyses, systematic classroom observation, linking priorities with the recent relevant research and theory, the continuing use of student perceptions, and analysis and interpretation of test scores. Teachers should assume a preeminent role in each of these activities. A major reorientation is needed both in terms of how professional development agendas are set as well as who should be involved in that process.

The focus in professional development has been on the technical and performative aspects of teaching. Both the more personal, interpersonal, and artistic dimensions of teaching and the more theoretical and propositional aspects have tended to be devalued. The implications of this are profoundly negative.

Minimal attention is provided in "programs" of inservice to broader professional responsibilities and to career development concerns which extend beyond the classroom. In our original monograph (1987) we addressed multiple purposes of professional development and a variety of underrepresented formats for achieving these purposes.

Also, the relationship of inservice offerings to improved learning for students is tenuous at best. In some projects attention is focused on quantifying observed teacher behaviors in the classroom which were the focus of previous training, but efforts to assess actual gains or changes in student learnings of various types are rare.

*Characteristics of
Programs of
Professional
Development*

Many of the characteristics that a program of continuing professional development would incorporate and which we identified in our original literature review are relevant today and we recall them to provide a starting place for deliberation about what might be standards for professional development:

- The program has a mission statement, policy guidelines, goals, sources, budget, and personnel. Qualitative standards must be set to assess each of these. For example, the mission statement could be undergirded by an explicit set of assumptions about adult learning and development; the director of the program could have a line position of authority and budgetary control within the organizational structures.
- Teachers, as the primary participants, have a preeminent voice in governing the program.
- Determination of the program agenda (needs assessment) is a multidimensional process. It engages teachers (and students) in the identification of problems that affect them. This includes considering the how, where, when, with whom and why of staff development, as well as the what.
- The program is able to address multiple, interrelated purposes. These could include pedagogical, personal, curricular, organizational, professional, and career goals.
- The program acknowledges the reality of different teacher roles and role-relationships and their implications for staff development. In one instance, the primary purpose of staff development could be to address an unrealistic teacher role; in another to promote a collaborative relationship between two teachers into an ongoing growth activity and in a third to promote a leadership role for an outstanding teacher whereby she or he would be partially released from a teaching assignment to assist other teachers.
- The program employs a variety of strategies and forms of development beyond workshop and lecture-discussion formats, including such underemployed strategies such as child study, peer reflective teaching exercises, and structured organizational analyses and problem solving.
- Staff development is viewed as a continuing, developmental process; that is, specific projects are planned in consideration of the school context, and "follow-up" is provided in that setting.
- The program is able to support a skilled person or persons responsible for planning and managing professional development activities at the school site. The emphasis is on job-embedded and school-focused activities.
- The program addresses a balanced agenda of goals; that is, individual goals are accommodated both within and outside the context of broader institutional goals, whether at the state, local, or school level.

- While schools generally are a realistic unit for the design of a staff development plan; attention is given to individuals and especially to key functioning groups within the school. (1987, p. 99-100)

One of the major studies of professional development in recent times was that conducted by Mertens and Yarger (1981) of federally funded teacher centers. Mertens (1981) followed up this study by analyzing data gathered from over 50 teacher center sites and compared these with data collected in the Rand Change Agent Study (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975). Since the latter study examined almost 300 federally supported change efforts, commonalities derived in this analysis have the support of a large number of cases. This analysis is interesting as well since in the teacher center effort the focus was on teachers as change agents. In many of the cases examined in the Rand Study, the impetus for change was a federally supported curriculum and instruction effort going through more formal administrative channels. The following findings describing successful components from the Merten's (1981) study support our earlier list of characteristics:

- There are resources for timely response to teacher identified needs.
- Affording services to small groups is essential.
- Inservice activities are offered during the school day.
- Resources are available to provide ongoing support for individual teacher needs.
- There is an emphasis on local materials development.
- The point of view that teachers are professionals pervades the school district. (p. 2-7)

Shortly after these studies, Griffin (1982) identified key variables from his research on various school improvement projects. Findings from his research include an emphasis on design as a result of systematic problem identification at the school site. He also advocates that staff development programs be interactive with an ongoing school agenda, (an orientation reinforcing Howey's (1981) conception of "job-embedded and school focused" and wholly consistent with today's emphasis on acknowledging the power of context variables in research into teaching.) He also found that effective programs, within reasonable limits, were situation specific.

Gall, Haisely, Baker, and Perez (1984) were some of the first scholars to examine the effects of instructional programs having a major professional development focus and supported by empirically derived data from teacher "effectiveness" studies. They

emphasized the relationship to measures of student performance, not only standardized, but teacher-designed measures. Similarly, they underscored the need for behaviorally clear objectives for teachers. One of the common-sense conditions they found to enable professional development were regular meetings focused upon teacher concerns and devoted to building some consensus. Their research, as in many other studies, underscored professional development activities that allowed teachers to work with and learn from one another in informal settings as well as in the structured meetings.

Coaching and Advising

The sustained efforts of Joyce and Showers (1989) throughout the last decade reveal positive aspects of what they have labelled as coaching. In 1984, Showers defined coaching:

Coaching occurs at the point where the trainee attempts to implement the new teaching strategy in the classroom. Coaches may be peers, supervisors, principals, college instructors, or others, who are competent themselves in the utilization of the new approach to teaching. That is, they have achieved vertical transfer themselves or are in the process of achieving it. In the classroom they coach the teacher as he/she takes the first steps toward the utilization of the model, help him/her figure out how to teach the students how to respond to it and to adapt it to match their characteristics, and provide support as the teacher takes the first steps toward the utilization of the new model. . .

Coaching, then, may be conceived as a combination of several elements: the providing of companionship, the giving of technical feedback, and the analysis of application. (pp. 4-5)

One of the major contributions of Joyce and Showers is their perseverance in providing support and technical assistance for individuals in the classroom. Other studies of staff development confirm this (Stallings, 1985). Their pioneer efforts in developing the concept of coaching is related to the earlier work of a handful of strong women across the country who designed teachers' centers and who represented both a political and an ideological position about how teacher professional development should be determined and how it best occurs. Rather than the term "coach," they employed the term "advisor" and Adelaide Sproal (1977) represented well the view they held of this role in the following observation about her tenure as an advisor:

The real work which gets real results is only accomplished by quiet, persistent effort that stays on schedule. Over a stretch of several years that kind of commitment is more

fruitful than any number of quick attempts. My memories of situations that have been continuous are full of the imagery of growth. Getting to know a school is a growing, evolving process and I am constantly startled at the changes one's perceptions go through. It is this process which helps make advisory work so satisfying. (p. 119)

The Socio-Cognitive Orientation

Today, numerous studies concerned with learning to teach represent a theoretical framework derived from a cognitive science orientation mediated by the social and cultural context of the classroom. As a result, specific structured recall techniques have evolved that teachers can use to examine their classroom practice. The teaching clinic which we outlined in the section on entry year is embedded in this specific orientation and employs specific recall techniques to aid teachers in analyzing their instruction. The research of Gaskey (1985) is consonant with the above focus on sustained interaction at the classroom level. Gaskey found that, in the professional development efforts he studied, teacher beliefs changed only after they witnessed actual success in their classrooms employing the strategies advocated in the professional development program. This underscores again that not only is change a slow and difficult process, but also one wherein teachers need regular feedback in classrooms (coaching, advising, consulting) on the effects of that professional development on their students.

Sparks and her colleague (Sparks, Noneskowski, Hall, Alec, & Imich, 1985) designed a model that also recognized professional development as a gradual developmental process. The six steps to their model include: (1) development of readiness, awareness, and commitment; (2) needs assessment; (3) planning; (4) implementation; (5) evaluation; and (6) reassessment and continuation. This staff development program combines the resources of a university with local schools and promotes the idea of teacher-directed school improvement. The university staff acts as a facilitator in recognizing the teachers' needs and in developing and implementing the plan.

College Collaboration

To this point, we have not stressed the contributions that teacher education / higher education might make to district and school professional development. Sparks and her colleagues illustrate the commitment which is needed for this to succeed. Such collaboration from our own experience over several years is not easy. Regardless of these difficulties we believe such collaboration can yield major benefits to both parties. Perhaps Goodlad (1987) more than any other scholar, has been concerned with strategies for

changing schools and the potential role of higher education in this enterprise. Beginning with the league of cooperating schools and its eventual evolution into the Institute for Development of Educational Activities (I/D/E/A), Individually Guided Education (IGE) as a derivative of that, and now the National Network for Educational Renewal (NNER) he has been engaged in broad-scale change efforts calling for the further professional development of teachers. Goodlad's experience led him to identify the following interrelated themes in terms of the benefits of schools and colleges of education and districts working with one another:

First, juxtaposition of the action-oriented culture of the school and the inquiry-oriented culture of the university offers promise of shaking loose the calcified programs of both (e.g., how teachers teach and how teachers are prepared to teach); second, a school-university partnership offers promise of stimulating collaborative inquiry into both the problems of the schools and the relevance of various research paradigms; third, the agendas of instructional, curricular, and organizational improvements needed in the schools, and of the relevance of teacher education and research programs in schools of education, appear to overlap and thus to satisfy the criterion of mutual self-interests, characteristics of a potentially powerful partnership. (1987, p. 14)

Reed and Cedja (1987) further underscore the need for balanced interchange of valued commodities.

While promotive interdependence appears to be a basic attribute of collaboration, it is not sufficient in and of itself to characterize true collaboration. For if two or more organizations are to collaborate each must have commodities it is willing and able to exchange for commodities it needs and the other has and is also willing and able to exchange. Beder (1984) describes this aspect of collaboration very succinctly when he observes that for collaboration to flourish, the parties to it must tangibly benefit, and the key to benefit lies in a reciprocal relationship where both partners exchange resources valued less for resources valued more. (p. 7)

Academies and Regional Training Centers

We advocate that SEAs LEAs, and higher education institutions jointly assume a leadership position in the promotion of regional training centers with those in higher education working closely with leaders in K-12 schools. Thus, we include in this brief review of the literature on continuing professional development the concept of leadership academies, typically administrative leadership. Academies or institutes for leadership began to evolve

in the late 1970s at the state level. Impetus for these academies included a series of management development seminars offered for chief state school officers through the American Management Association (AMA) and the National Academy for School Executives (NASE). By the early 1980s the concept had gained a foothold in the south and east with building principals as the primary client in these training programs.

Over time training materials in these academies drew increasingly from research literatures concerned with "effective schooling" (Wahlberg, 1984), school leadership (Barret and Long, 1986), and eventually "effective" teaching (Stallings, 1985). The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (NWREL), for example, developed training materials to build knowledge and skills in a year-long series of workshops emphasizing five themes: vision building, school climate and culture, curriculum implementation, improving instruction, and monitoring school performance (Blum, Butler, Olson, 1987). The criteria developed by NWREL are consistent with those we advocated earlier as follows:

Program Content

- The program has clear goals and operational objectives.
- Content builds on participants' prior experiences and is related to their school situations. Participants are readied to apply what they have learned.
- Content is supported by research.
- The program builds both knowledge (an understanding of background and concepts) and skills (ability to put knowledge into operation).
- Participant evaluation and accountability are integrated into the program.

Program Delivery Model

- The program is delivered in more than one incident over an extended period of time.
- Presentation of new material is followed by demonstration, practice, feedback, and follow-up for evaluation and accountability.
- Readiness activities begin the program, with complex new material presented incrementally and accompanied by repeated checks for understanding.
- The model includes a variety of instructional modes and activities.
- Participants learn with and from one another.

Post-Program Follow-up

- Systematic long-term follow-up reinforces and monitors new behaviors, assists in implementation, and provides support in applying new knowledge and skills.
- Participants receive feedback as part of the follow-up.
- Participants are accountable for implementing new knowledge and skills. (p. 26)

These institutes and academies represented an era where the focus was very much on examining characteristics at the school level which contribute to school "effectiveness." Organizational, structural, and climate variables have been identified by numerous scholars in reviews of school effectiveness studies. Purkey and Smith (1983), for example, identified instructional leadership, curriculum articulation, faculty collegiality, clarity in goals, shared high expectations, maximized time for learning, and recognition of academic success as contributing to higher than expected student performance in school improvement efforts.

This instructional leadership priority reinforced and spawned numerous instructional improvement models which called for the principal to monitor classrooms in terms of teaching and learning behaviors stressed in these models. The most pervasive of these was developed by Hunter (1984). In studies of the effects of implementing the Hunter materials (Robbins and Wolfe, 1985, Stalling, 1985), it became clear that there remain major differences in quality and style of teaching at the individual classroom level regardless of the potency of school culture and ethos and in spite of efforts to effect common practice across teachers. Anderson (1987), noted for his research in this regard, concluded:

Someone recently described a school as a "set of classrooms sharing a common parking lot," the implication being that most schools are not meaningful social units with common philosophies, goals, and instructional policies and practices. Rather, teachers work side by side with greatly differing perceptions of the educability of their students, their tolerances for misbehavior in their classrooms, and the extent to which they endorse and implement the classroom management techniques and instructional strategies to which they are expressed via staff development projects. (p. 65)

Anderson underscores two major concerns in studies of professional development at the school level. First, aggregating data at the school level considerably masks differences among teachers. Second, focusing upon teacher behaviors without

adequate attention to what pupils do can be even more misleading in terms of what has occurred.

*A Focus on Learning
and Learning to Learn*

These later concerns underscore the present preoccupation in the research community and increasingly in professional development models (Brown and Palinscar, 1989) with student cognition and with learning to learn strategies. The content in professional development is not on the overt behavior of students or what they achieve, but rather how they learn — how they develop their conceptual ability. Metacognitive strategies have commonly been defined as those which provide the learner with an awareness and control of the thinking task and self. Strategies are evolving to provide students with an understanding of motivation and their responsibility for academic success. This professional development emphasis on students regulating or monitoring their own learning and teachers having the knowledge and abilities to promote such student-directed activities stands in sharp contrast to professional development strategies which focused broadly on standardizing teacher behavior. These former approaches stressed observations in classrooms of overt technical skills with the teacher as the active participant and central actor, and the curriculum transacted largely through declarative information. In this regard Marzano (1987) concludes:

I believe standard staff development practices are not directly transferable to the implementation of thinking skills strategies in classrooms because, to be effective, such strategies require a major shift or restructuring in teacher perceptions of curriculum, instruction and assessment. (p. 6)

*More Authentic
Assessment*

With altered conceptions of teaching and learning come altered conceptions of teacher and student assessment. If aggregating data in studies of programs of professional development at the all school level masks differences among teachers, think of the variability among students masked in test data reported at the school level or even across grade level and classrooms within a school. More natural and authentic assessment is evolving and often places teachers, as well as students themselves, at the core of this process. The State Department of Education in California, for example, has made a commitment to what they refer to as authentic assessment. Shephard (1989) reported:

California already has a performance measure in place at two grade levels, the teacher-developed California Assessment Program (CAP) writing assessment. The use of matrix sampling enables us to assess eight types of writing

at each grade level. At grade eight, for example, students write an autobiographical incident, a report of information, an evaluation, a problem solution, a firsthand biography, a story, a speculation about causes or effects, or an observation. CAP plans to develop an integrated English-language arts assessment worthy of the literature-based curriculum now being implemented throughout the state. Direct assessment methods both oral and written, will be expected to measure students' understanding of text and their response to literature. School-wide pilots of portfolio assessment of reading and writing across the curriculum are under way aiming to develop several models tailored to diverse school settings. (p. 6)

These new emphases on a constructivist view of learning and more real-world assessment have major implications not only for the content but also for the process of professional development. Thus, are some indicators that the focus in future professional development efforts will increasingly be designed to enable meaningful conceptual learning and the assessment of such learning in natural settings.

New expertise embedded in a continuing manner at the school site is needed to achieve these challenging goals. We believe that teachers released partially from their teaching responsibilities are both logically and cost-effectively the ideal means to provide continuing assistance in what are radical departures for most professionals in approaches to teaching, learning and assessment. Therefore, we outline this concept of teacher leaders in the next section.

Teacher Leaders in Professional Development

The ultimate implementors of any major changes in schools are teachers; they are unquestionably the key to high quality instruction. The lack of their central involvement in past change efforts is directly related to the failure of these efforts to be well or broadly implemented. This lack of involvement is also understandable as Cohen underscores all too common present realities:

... others have noted that most school teachers must work with a curriculum that they did not devise, and often with materials they do not like, as a matter of local practice or state policy or both. This restricts their opportunities to do things differently. They must accept a schedule that contains little flexibility for dealing with subjects and students, and little time to prepare new lessons or reconsider old ones. These conditions further restrict their opportunities to change or improve their teaching. And their workloads are

ordinarily quite heavy: Either they must offer instruction in a great range of subjects, or they must teach the same subject to many students. Many must additionally supervise extracurricular activities, monitor lunchrooms, hallways, and playgrounds, and fill out a small blizzard of forms. Most teachers simply do not have the opportunities or energy to try something new, especially if it is a demanding something. Finally, while their jobs are difficult and increasingly demanding, they usually are poorly paid and held in low esteem. This does not enhance teachers' inclination to take on the demanding new assignments that much innovation entails (1988, p. 8).

It would be inaccurate and unfair to paint too negative a portrayal. We readily acknowledge that advances have been, and continue to be, made in the teacher's workplace. Over time, class size has diminished, and teacher salaries are becoming more competitive. There are many instances of improved curricula and better texts. There are also major efforts, such as the Holmes Consortium, to improve the initial education of teachers. And, of course, there are countless teachers who are effective in all types of settings regardless of obstacles such as those noted above.

Yet, one can only be skeptical of facile schemes to "restructure" schools. The challenges which teachers face and their work conditions remain a major deterrent to many outstanding people entering teaching. Thus, a basic strategy both to improve schools and considerably enable professional development is to provide intensive training to accomplished teachers who then would be released up to one-half time from their teaching assignment to assist their colleagues in a direct and continuous manner in classroom settings. Both release time and preparation are essential. In terms of the latter, these teacher leaders would generally have the knowledge and skills to:

- Expand and improve their colleagues' basic teaching methods
- Enable students to better monitor their learning and to take greater responsibility for their actions in the classroom
- Improve the working climate of both individual classrooms and schools as a whole
- Document in more accountable fashion the effects of their teaching in order to provide parents and community with more precise and relevant data about learning than standardized tests allow

We believe that significant gains in student learning could be made if, for example, one teacher were released one-half time for every 12 teachers at a school site. In this manner, every teacher would have the opportunity for sustained involvement with expert assistance at

least bi-weekly for two to three hours on an individual basis and/or for longer periods in a small group setting. At times, the expert teacher leaders would engage in demonstration teaching in their colleagues' classrooms, releasing them to observe; other times they would observe their colleagues, providing them with new insights about their instruction, and still at other times they would jointly plan and teach and engage in mutual problem solving.

The rationale for selecting, training, and preparing outstanding teachers for these new roles is threefold. First, even though principals and other supervisory and support personnel are at present assigned these responsibilities, there is simply little evidence that many principals can provide expert, sustained assistance in improving the quality of teaching and learning at the school site. There is, on the other hand, documentation of the mixed effects, negative as well as positive, of these limited "supervisory" visits. The validity and helpfulness of the most common principal activity, supervisory visits designed to yield a judgment about teaching effectiveness, is generally taken for granted. Nonetheless, Medley and Coker (1987) report:

... the small number of studies of the validity of principals' judgments (or of ratings based on them) that have been reported in the literature have yielded consistently negative findings. Each such study has concluded that there is no appreciable agreement between principals' judgments of teachers' effectiveness and the amount students learn. (p. 138)

The success of improvement efforts undertaken by those support personnel who reside largely outside of schools have been similarly equivocal. The recent and widespread efforts to "restructure" schools and institute "site-based" management are acknowledgments of the major limitations of external efforts to change schools. Howey (1988), in reviewing a quarter of a century of change efforts in education, concluded:

The National Defense Education Act, widely acknowledged as the first major federal initiative to improve schools, was enacted in the early 1960s in reaction to the launching of Sputnik. It spawned a quarter of a century of unprecedented investment in "innovation." Even casual observers of this phase of our educational history witnessed federal categorical monies targeted for particular problems and specific initiatives translated into dozens of new positions attached to local districts. The result was, in many instances, the emergence of the educational bureaucracy at the local level. The actual structure and organization of schools was little affected. Teachers were typically the target

of rather than the means for improvement. A plethora of helpers now stood ready to assist increasingly beleaguered teachers confronted with an expanded instructional agenda. In retrospect, the unintended results of this broadened federal support seem hardly surprising. (p. 29)

There is widespread acknowledgement that the expertise and the catalyst for change has to be embedded in a continuing way at the school site. Releasing lead teachers at the school site with responsibility for instructional improvement only partially addresses the problem, however. This brings us to the second point.

Preparing Teacher Leaders

These persons must have not only the courage and civility, but also most fundamentally the ability to assist their colleagues in what is a most challenging task. Even the best of our teachers, for all of their talents, are not prepared for such a role. They do, however, have the necessary prerequisites others do not. They bring credibility, needed local knowledge, craft wisdom and ownership to the task — all powerful factors in efforts to improve teaching and learning. What they commonly lack as we indicated earlier is recent scientific knowledge about teaching and learning, understandings of how to work effectively with adults, especially while attempting to influence them in a collegial fashion, and an understanding of how to positively affect the broader culture of the school, especially relationships between teachers and teachers, and between teachers and other supervisory and support personnel.

The essential point here is that only teachers can bring both parts of the formula to this task and only if they maintain their instructional responsibilities and hence their credibility both as teachers and as experts who have knowledge and abilities beyond that which teachers generally have. Both roles must be maintained if there is to be sustained attention to school renewal and continuing professional development at the school sites.

This strategy of employing teachers in leadership positions to improve instruction and enable professional development speaks directly to another problem of major proportions: how do we retain high quality teachers? The incentives this initiative brings to the veteran teacher to remain includes the regeneration that comes with a periodic change in role, the opportunities for leadership, more collegial and professional dialogue and decision making, and a more flexible and functional organizational pattern in which to work. Thus, this lead teacher strategy addresses not only instructional improvement and organizational capacity for

self-renewal but speaks directly to the recruitment and **retention** of high quality teachers.

Primary emphases in these training designs should draw upon the best of research and knowledge concerned with:

- Leadership, change, and organizational development
- Adult learning and development
- Both effective teaching and self-directed learning strategies
- Documentation, analyses and evaluation of teaching and learning
- Promoting professional development in others
- Collaborative action research and organizational problem solving

Training in each of these domains could follow tested patterns of clinical development such as the theory, instructor demonstration, critique, student trial, guided on-site practice and experimentation, and coaching cycles promoted by Joyce and Showers (1986).

We propose that teacher leader candidates receive **core** training in domains such as those above, regardless of the specific roles they would assume in continuing professional development. School districts and individual schools would understandably tailor these leadership positions to meet their specific needs and interests. Specialized, as well as core, training would be provided the lead teachers. There are a number of specific roles and responsibilities which could be piloted and studied in regional training centers designed to prepare these lead teachers in various continuing professional development functions such as demonstration teaching, coaching, action research, organizational problem-solving, professional (staff) development specialist, studying students in case method approaches, on-site materials and curriculum development, data collection, assessment, and evaluation in the classroom, clinical training for beginning teachers, and psychological support and counseling.

Evaluation of Teacher Leaders

The effects of this teacher leadership strategy on the recruitment and retention of quality teachers can be evaluated in a variety of ways. Assistance for and review of beginning teachers will be a priority function for many teachers in these new leadership roles. Thus, numerous indices of the quality of beginning teachers who receive this support could be collected and their performance closely monitored through at least their first critical year of teaching to compare them with those who don't receive this support.

The screening out of less than competent, or less than dedicated, teachers is as important as the retention of able teachers. The percentages of those new teachers counseled out of teaching could also be documented. The retention of outstanding veteran teachers is a concern as is the recruitment and retention of new teachers. Therefore, pre/post attitudinal measures and examination of the retention rate of veteran teachers could also be analyzed. Selected attitudinal, classroom, and school-climate measures could be used to look at the effects of changing roles and role-relationships in schools on school climate and the type and extent of professional renewal activities.

A second major focus in research and evaluation could be on the nature, frequency and quality of site-based, job-embedded teacher growth or professional development activities. Assessment could occur as to whether forms of teacher experimentation, individually and in teams, become more common and sustaining than at present. Multiple aspects of schools with teachers in leadership positions could be assessed and compared with schools with more traditional approaches to staff development and curriculum change. Cost/benefit analyses could fully examine this basic strategy of releasing key expert teachers part-time to provide a variety of services on site while a cadre of permanent replacement teachers assume their classroom responsibilities as contrasted with full-time, external-to-the-school personnel providing these services (a replacement teacher, for example, could teach in the classroom of one teacher leader in the morning and another in the afternoon in order to achieve stability and shared teaching). Specific types of teacher leadership roles as identified above could also be examined and compared. Various evaluative priorities could be established as a condition of funding pilot projects in this regard.

Thus, just as with the primary strategy for assisting and assessing beginning teachers, the initiative for improving professional development would have the following characteristics:

- Teachers assuming expanded responsibilities for their own continuing professional development
- Modifying conditions which militate against teachers fully assisting one another; that is, quality preparation for lead teachers and release time
- Embedding more professional development at the school site and coupling these activities more tightly to curricular and instructional priorities for students
- Developing teacher expertise to document the effects of these professional development efforts as a contingency of their funding

The following are recommended to enable continuing professional development to achieve these characteristics:

*Recommendations
for Continuing
Professional
Development*

1. SEAs, in concert with key stakeholders including representatives from state legislatures, higher education, professional associations, teacher and administrator groups, and representatives from LEAs should engage in developing standards for programs of continuing professional development. Teachers should constitute the majority of those who develop these standards. These standards could be employed in a **program approval** process sponsored by the SEA. Program approval would be requisite to formula funding.

Such standards would include qualitative benchmarks to assess explicit dimensions of a program of professional development such as governance structure, financing, staffing, long- and short-range planning, "needs" assessment and diagnostic procedures, relationship of local and individual goals to state priorities, the instructional capacity of the professional development program with an emphasis on school-focused and job-embedded forms of professional development, follow-up and "coaching," and a design for evaluation which addresses both teacher performance and pupil learnings. Standards will be adjusted to accommodate differences in the size and character of districts, or in instances where small districts cooperate, regional consortia.

2. The state should implement formula funding (dollars per teacher or per educational personnel) to support approved programs of professional development (written plans would be approved biennially and program audits would occur every 5-7 years). An example of such support for professional development exists in Iowa where their Phase III program distributes forty million dollars a year on a per pupil basis to teachers for staff development and outstanding performance.
3. In order to focus on district capacity-building and inter-institutional cooperation, funding would be contingent upon two other conditions: First, the use of state general funds for the employment of external consultants would require documentation of the theoretic and scientific bases for these activities and materials, the qualifications of the consultant, and documentation of the effects of prior use of the materials and activities. Second, priority would be given to

districts which had established formal and contractual relationships with institutions of higher education or higher education consortia to assist in providing continuing professional development.

4. The regional training centers identified in the recommendations for induction should also be designed to provide training for leaders in continuing professional development. Again, colleges and universities would work cooperatively with local districts in designing leadership programs in this regard. (These centers also would have the capacity to assess the qualification and materials employed by various consultants desiring to work with districts in their region as recommended in number 3 above.)
5. Instructional leadership roles for teachers should be a centerpiece in the development of these programs of professional development. Selected outstanding teachers should be partially released from their instructional responsibilities and prepared in a variety of expert roles to assist their colleagues. SEAs could serve as a major catalyst in this regard by bringing leaders together from both higher education and K-12 schools to design training curricula and materials for these new responsibilities and by supporting training in these regional centers.
6. A coupling of professional development activities and instructional outcomes for pupils should be emphasized. Plans submitted from local districts would identify how these goals could be assessed, and how these represent a reasonable balance of state, local, and individual educator objectives.

This concludes our recommendations for state level structural and policy changes ranging from recruitment into teacher education, through preservice preparation and induction into the teaching force to continuing professional development. As we indicated at the outset, in order to improve the education of teachers an interrelated set of policies are called for with state agencies partnering with higher education to advocate making needed changes. Hopefully this report and the recommendations it contains will serve as a means of stimulating dialogue and debate towards achieving more enlightened teacher education policy and practice within and across states.

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